

ANALECTIC MAGAZINE

AND

NAVAL CHRONICLE.

OCTOBER, 1816.

ORIGINAL.

A Statistical View of the Commerce of the United States of America: its Connection with Agriculture and Manufactures: and an Account of the Public Debt, Revenues, and Expenditure of the United States. With a brief Review of the Trade, Agriculture, and Manufactures of the Colonies, previous to their Independence. Accompanied with Tables, illustrative of the Principles and Object of the Work. By Timothy Pitkin, a Member of the House of Representatives of the United States from the state of Connecticut. Charles Hosmer, Hartford, 1816, 8vo. pp. 436.

OUR readers need not be told, that, by the right of discovery, Henry VII, of England, laid claim to the whole of North America; and that, between the 29th and 48th degrees of latitude, it was parcelled out by him and his successors in grants, principally to single, enterprising individuals. Avarice was originally at the bottom of the scheme; and accordingly the colonies were always considered as mere appendages to the mother-country. The whole system of maternal policy was calculated to make them entirely subservient to the interests of England:—all their wants were to be supplied from what was then usually denominated *home*; nor could their own produce be carried in any but British vessels, or

be landed in any but British dominions.* To render the latter provision the more effectual,—it was enacted by parliament, in 1660, that all colonial produce should be ‘laid on shore,’ in some port belonging to his majesty’s kingdom,—under the penalty of forfeiting not only the goods themselves, but the vessels in which they were carried. By another parliamentary enactment of 1663, no European commodities could be imported into the colonies,—except they were shipped in English vessels and from English ports: a disability which was a little ameliorated, however, by a drawback of duties on their exportation to this country.

The policy of these regulations was three-fold:—to draw from the American settlements an immediate supply of agricultural productions,—to prevent the dangerous increase of their wealth, by circumscribing the extent of their commerce,—and to secure their perpetual subjection to the mother-country, by making them continually feel the ties of dependence. This system of cramping and exsiccating the colonies was gradually made more and more rigorous; and subsequently to 1766 their trade was entirely limited to Great Britain, to the West-Indies, to certain parts of Africa, and to that section of Europe which lies south of Cape Finisterre.

But in spite of every restriction the increase of the colonies, both in numbers and in wealth, created ere long the jealousy of the parent state. Besides the commerce with Africa of negroes and New-England rum, they—particularly the northern colonies—carried on with the West-Indies a very lucrative exchange of lumber, fish, grain, and other provisions,—for rum, sugar, coffee, salt, molasses, and every other article, the exportation of

* There was a distinction, however, between what were called *enumerated* and *non-enumerated* commodities,—between such, in other words, as were exclusively confined to the market of the parent country, and such as might be transported to any part of the world. The distinction was hardly worth making; for the former embraced all the most important articles of commerce,—such as sugars, tobacco, cotton wool, indigo, ginger, fustic, and other dying woods; to which were added, molasses, tar, pitch, turpentine, hemp, masts, yards, copper ore, pig and bar iron, pot and pearl ashes, beaver skins, whale fins, hides, &c. Rice and lumber were at first *enumerated*; but they were subsequently permitted to be shipped to any European port south of Cape Finisterre,—where also a statute of 1766 obliged all the *non enumerated* articles to be carried.

which was not prohibited. This trade was indiscriminate; and as there were several foreign West-India islands whose superior fertility gave them an advantage over those possessed by the English, the greater commerce of the former was a subject of discontent to the merchants and planters of the latter. Again, the introduction of a few domestic manufactures,—such as some woollen and linen cloths, iron, hats, paper, &c.—very naturally accompanied the increased population of the colonies,—and quite as naturally excited the jealousy and complaint of the manufacturers in the mother-country. In 1731, the murmurs of the merchants, planters, and manufacturers had grown so vexatious and loud that parliament was obliged to direct the board of trade and plantations to make a report concerning those prosperous parts of colonial economy which were ‘*detrimental* to the trade, navigation, and manufactures of *Great Britain*;’—a direction which exhibits at once the light in which the colonies were held, and the miserable mistake of English statesmen in that period—who thus gratuitously assumed that the interests of the colonies could be incompatible with the general interests of the empire.

From this report it appears that, though some woollen and linen cloth was made in New-England, New-York, Pennsylvania, and Maryland, the grievous manufacture of the former extended only to the wool of such sheep as every agriculturist was obliged to have on his farm: and that what linen was manufactured consisted merely of ‘coarse cloths, bags, traces, and halters for their horses,’—articles which surely could be no great subject of commercial jealousy, and which the colonists had ventured to make for themselves, because their own flax and hemp were more durable and more easily raised than those which they could get from any part of Europe. What should have quieted still more the jealousy of the mother-country,—the report goes on to state, that the high price of labour in America rendered the manufacture of linen 20 per cent. and the manufacture of woollen 50 per cent. dearer in the colonies than in Great Britain.—About this time was commenced the system of sending circular *queries* to all the colonial governors in order to learn the interior state of each settlement: and by their own accounts,—which, however, must not be too implicitly relied on,—there was not in all the provinces a sufficiency

of domestic manufactures to supply *one sixteenth* of their whole demand.

The British West-Indians still continued their importunate cries against the trade of the colonies with those islands which belonged to other nations;—and in 1733 a parliamentary statute imposed a duty of 9d. sterling on every gallon of rum, 6d. on every gallon of molasses, and 5s. on every hundred weight of sugar, imported into Anglo-American plantations from foreign sugar colonies. The duty on rum was subsequently reduced to 6d.—that on molasses to 3d. on the gallon: but it was always considered in the just light of a sacrifice to the West-Indian interest; and every possible expedient was adopted for the evasion of its payment. In 1732 the exportation of colonial hats was forbidden under severe penalties; and in 1750 the manufacture of pig and bar iron was alike the subject of statutable prohibition. Its importation into England, in the raw state, however, was encouraged both by bounties from parliament and by premiums from the society instituted at London ‘for the encouragement of arts, manufactures, and commerce.’ Bounties and premiums were, also, bestowed, at successive periods, upon the importation into the mother-country of almost all the articles of Colonial produce,—such as tar, pitch, rosin, turpentine, indigo, hemp, flax, logwood, and lumber of every description.

In 1749 the population of the North American colonies was estimated at 1,046,000; and their annual imports from England at about 900,000*l*. At the commencement of the war of 1755, between England and France for colonial boundaries, the imports of those provinces which are now the United States rose at once to nearly double their former value; and during the five years of its continuance there was an annual increase of about 300,000*l*. sterling. The previous encroachments of the French made the British colonists feel a great interest in the result of the contest; and they voluntarily assumed more expense in carrying it on than was absolutely demandable.

As a smuggling trade was carried on between the colonies and the foreign West-India islands, it is impossible to ascertain from the custom-house books the precise state of their exports and imports previous to the year 1776. These, however, are the only

documents we have; and from them it appears, that the exports for 1769 amounted to about \$13,000,000,—of which nearly one half was shipped to England; and that the imports for the same period amounted to about \$12,000,000,—of which, again, more than the half was received from the mother-country. On the same imperfect data it may be calculated, that, previous to their rupture with Great Britain, the colonists possessed about 300,000 tons of shipping; and that they were in the habit of increasing the amount of their shipping at the yearly rate of about 21,000 tons,—of which more than one half was built in New-Hampshire and Massachusetts.

During the revolution the foreign commerce of the colonists was entirely destroyed; and they were thrown back upon their own resources for a supply of every thing necessary to the prosecution of an expensive war. It cost them more than \$135,000,000;* and they came out of the contest with a debt of \$42,000,000,—with no funds to pay the interest or to redeem the principal,—and with no powers in congress to provide such funds by the imposition of mercantile duties, or by any other expedient whatsoever. The delegates of the old confederation made several struggles to obtain from the state governments the power of levying imposts; but their struggles were all abortive; and for the want of returns from our own custom-house officers, we are under necessity of recurring to books of the English,—in order to make any thing like an estimate of our exports and imports for the two years directly subsequent to revolutionary war. From these we ascertain that, in 1784, the latter were about 18,000,000—in the next year about 12,000,000,—in both about 30,000,000 of dollars; while the former for the same period amounted to no more than about 8 or 9,000,000:—a disparity which soon exhausted us of the little specie we had at the close of the revolution, and removed us still further from the prospect of relieving the public burthens. Almost every individual of the nation—as well as the nation itself—was greatly involved in debt: many were of opinion that they had gained worse than nothing by the achievement of independence, and sought to remedy their

* According to the specie valuation. In continental bills the amount was—375,476,541 dollars of the *old*, and 2,070,485 dollars of the *new emission*,—in all 359,547,026 dollars.

desperate fortunes by means of domestic insurrection: public credit was no more; and our affairs appeared to be fast dissolving into that anarchical confusion, out of which one strong arm alone can bring order and government. There was no time to be lost; and, at the proposition of Virginia, commissioners from that state, as well as from Pennsylvania, New-York, New-Jersey, and Delaware, convened at Annapolis in September, 1786, to institute some uniform and co-operative plan of national administration. But as they were only a partial representation of the United States they could adopt no measures which would be cogent upon the whole; and it was not till May 1787 that,—in consequence of their recommendation to the several state legislatures,—a convention was held in Philadelphia, and that system of government devised, which gave to congress the general power of superintending our commercial, as well as our other public affairs; and which has made us—with a few intervals of adversity—the most prosperous, and perhaps we may add, the most happy people on the globe.

We must now divide our exports into,—those of domestic,—and those of foreign, produce. The *first* are subdivided, again, into the produce, 1st, of the sea—2d, of the forest—3d, of agriculture—and 4th, of manufactures. Cod and whale are the most important products of the sea; and, until the late treaty of peace between the United States and Great Britain, they composed a great and integral part of all the revenues of the northern states. The cod-fisheries experienced the general shock of revolutionary devastation; nor did they recover their former activity and vigour until 1790. In consequence of a representation of their embarrassed state, by the legislature of Massachusetts, the general government offered, in that year,—as a sort of drawback of the duties on imported salt,—a bounty upon the exportation of salted fish,—and subsequently to that period a pecuniary allowance to such vessels as were employed in those fisheries for a certain number of months. These measures operated as vigorous stimuli; and from 1791,—when the quantity was 383,237 quintals of dried, and 57,424 bls. of pickled fish,—up to 1808, the annual exportation increased by an average rate of 10,000 quintals and 500 barrels. The *restrictive system* made a sudden abridgment of about two-thirds of the yearly quantity: it recovered about one-

third in 1809; but since that period it has dwindled at the average rate of about 63,000 quintals of dried, and about 9,000 bls. of pickled fish annually. In 1814 the former amounted to no more than 31,310—the latter to no more than 8,436.

In 1795 the enrolled tonnage of ships employed in the cod-fisheries was 24,887, and the tonnage of vessels licensed under 20 tons 6,046:—in 1807 the former amounted to 60,689, the latter to 9,616; showing in all a yearly increase at the average rate of about 3,000 tons. In 1808 the whole amount of tonnage—both enrolled and licensed under twenty tons—was 51,997; which by an average annual ratio of about 5,000 tons fell down to 18,522 in the year 1813. —For the ten years between 1791 and 1800 the average amount of tonnage employed in the cod-fishery was estimated by the secretary of the treasury in 1803 at about 33,000 annually: between 1801 and 1807 the average amount was about 44,000; and through both periods it was of course about 38,000 a year.

The value of exported fish and the number of seamen employed in the fisheries must of course experience fluctuations correspondent to the number of quintals and the amount of tonnage. From 1803 to 1807 the average value of dried fish exported was about \$ 2,000,000,—of pickled fish about \$ 440,000 annually: in 1808 the former fell off to \$ 623,000,—the latter to \$ 98,000; in the following year they almost reached their former height; but from 1810,—when the first amounted to \$ 913,000, and the second to \$ 214,000,—they declined at the average annual rate of \$ 156,000, and \$ 33,000 respectively; and in 1814 one was only \$ 128,000,—the other only \$ 50,000.

The number of seamen employed in the cod-fishery between 1791 and 1800 was about 5,000,—between 1801 and 1807, about 7,000; and during both periods about 6,000, on an annual average. —In 1744 the *French* employed in this fishery about 24,520 men—14 large ships; and took 1,149,000 quintals of fish. For several years previous to the late war, ourselves and the English were almost exclusively engaged in them:—but the late treaty was silent on the subject; and orders were despatched by earl Barthurst from Downing street, June 17, 1815, to deprive us of the only privilege which renders the fishery of any value,—the privilege of

drying our fish upon the unsettled parts of the British territories.

Fortunately the *whale*-fishery stands in no need of such a privilege. The inhabitants of the little island of Nantucket,—about 15 miles long and 2 or 3 broad,—commenced the American whale-fishery; which at its institution, in 1690, was carried on in boats and confined pretty much to the shore. In 1715 they employed six sloops of 88 tons burthen; and began gradually to extend their adventures from the American coast to the western islands—to the Brazils—and finally to the northern and southern seas. The Dutch at first monopolized the whale-fishery; but in 1788 this shared the fate of every other branch of their commerce.

From 1771 to 1775 the whale-fishing vessels of Massachusetts, or rather of Nantucket, amounted in number to 304, and in tonnage to 27,840:—from 1787 to 1789 the former was 122, and the latter 10,210. During the first period the number of seamen was 4,059; who took annually 39,390 bls. of spermaceti, and 8,650 bls. of whale, oil:—while during the second period the seamen were only 1,611, and the barrels of oil 7,980 spermaceti,—13,130 whale. The quantities exported from 1791 to 1814 are so fluctuating from year to year that no average would give an adequate idea of the fishery. Thus, leaving out the thousands, the quantities of spermaceti oil are as 134, 63, 140, 82, 80, 164, 27, 129, 114, 222, 92, 28, 46, 5, 73, 43, 44,—but in 1808 the gallons were only six hundred and twelve,—in the following years they recovered their thousands,—51, 64, 136, 63. As this oil is chiefly carried to Great Britain, the exports for 1813–14 of course amounted to nothing. The gallons of whale oil exported yearly during the same period were quite as irregular:—447; 436; 513; 1000; 810; 1176; 582; 700; 421; 204; 215; 380; 550; 646; 626; 826; 933; 198; 421; 545; 187; 106; 5; 0.* These fluctuations,—that part of them, we mean, which was not occasioned by government,—are undoubtedly owing in a great measure to the uncertainty of the business.—The yearly values of the exports have, of course, the same irregularity. Thus in 1803 the value of whale oil and bone was \$ 280,000; and in the subsequent years up to 1804,

* We have dropped the thousands as before.

(dropping the thousands) 310; 315; 418; 476; 88;* 169; 222; 78; 56; 2; 1;—the annual value of spermaceti oil during the same period, 175; 70; 163; 182; 130; 33;* 136; 132; 273; 141; 10; 9.—In 1804 the cod and whale-fisheries furnished more than \$ 6,000,000 of our exports:—ten years afterwards their united value was only \$ 316,000.—The West-Indies, and southern parts of Europe were the markets for cod-fish;—the West-Indies, Great Britain, France, Spain, and Portugal for common whale oil.

We come *secondly*, to the products of the forests;—which consist of staves and heading, hoops and poles, shingles, boards, plank, scantling, and timber for masts, spars, buildings, &c.—tar, pitch, turpentine, and rosin; pot and pearl ashes; skins and furs; ginseng; oak bark, and other dyes. The official value of exported lumber for 1770 was \$ 686,588;† and from 1803 to 1807 the average yearly value was more than \$ 2,500,000.—In 1770 our exportation of tar was 82,075 bls.—of pitch, 9,114 bls.—of turpentine, 17,014 bls.; of all which the official value was \$ 144,000. The attempt of the Tar Company of Sweden, in 1703, to enhance the price of these articles induced the British government to offer the colonists a bounty of 4*l* a ton on the importation of tar and pitch, and 3*l* a ton on the importation of turpentine and rosin; and since the separation of the two countries the mere profits of the trade have sufficiently rewarded its continuance. In 1805–6–7 we exported 64,917 bls. of tar, 9,008 bls. of pitch, and 74,607 bls. of turpentine; the united average value of which was about \$500,000. These articles are principally the produce of North Carolina.

In 1761 the society instituted at London for the encouragement of *manufactures*, as well as of arts and commerce, offered premiums and sent over treatises to stimulate the colonists in the production of pot and pearl ashes; who in 1770 exported 1,173 tons of the former, and 737 tons of the latter,—the joint value of which was then estimated at about \$ 290,000. The trade in these articles has greatly increased; and in 1807 the whole value of their exportation was \$ 1,490,000.—Furs and peltry have always constituted a considerable item in American commerce. In 1770 the

* In consequence of the Embargo.

† We state all values in our present currency;—though it was not instituted in 1770.

official value of the exports from all the northern colonies, inclusive of Canada, was about \$ 670,000; from 1791 to 1803 the average annual value was about \$300,000; from 1804 to 1807 about \$900,000,—a sudden increase which is explained by supposing that through the latter period a large portion of the furs were brought from Canada and exported from the United States.—In 1770, the North-American colonists exported 74,604 pounds of ginseng,—valued at about \$ 5,000; and in 1806, no less than 448,394 pounds,—valued at \$ 139,000.—In 1803 the exportation of oak bark and other dyeing woods was valued at \$225,000.—From 1803 to 1807 the average yearly value of exported articles under this head was about \$ 5,000,000: for the next year they were only \$1,399,000; but thenceforward to 1813 the average was about \$ 3,400,000. In the next year they amounted to \$570,000 only. Except staves and heading, our lumber was chiefly carried to Great Britain and Portugal;—to the former of which countries, also, nearly all the naval stores—pot and pearl ashes, were transported.

We have always been an agricultural people. The facility of supporting families by the cultivation of our cheap lands has operated as usual in encouraging early marriages: the necessary increase of numbers re-acts upon the production of substance; and thus we go on by the curious involution of political arithmetic to grow in population and in wealth beyond any other nation on the earth. Our agricultural products may be divided into,—1st, those of vegetables, such as wheat-flour, rice, Indian-corn, rye, peas, beans, potatoes, &c.—2dly, those of animals, such as beef, tallow, hides, butter and cheese, pork and lard,—or the animals themselves, such live cattle, horses, mules, sheep, &c.—3dly, tobacco,—4thly, cotton,—5thly, some of minor importance, such as indigo, flax-seed, wax, &c.

I. Wheat was introduced by the first emigrants to this country; and for a long time was abundantly productive in the eastern states;—but of late it has nearly failed in New-England; and has become the staple commodity of the middle states. In 1770 the colonies which now compose the United States exported 752,240 bushels of wheat; of which no more than 11,739 were carried to England,—while about 149,985 were transported to Ireland, 955 to the West-Indies, and the remainder 588,561 to the south part

of Europe. During the same year 260 tons of flour and bread were exported to England, 3,583 to Ireland, 18,501 to the southern part of Europe, 72 to Africa, and 23,449 to the West-Indies. The joint official value of exported wheat and flour was about \$2,862,190. From 1791 to 1794, the average annual export was about 1,000,000 bushels of wheat, and more than 820,000 bls. of flour; from 1795 to 1800 a little more than 24,000 bushels; and a little less than 611,000 bls.; during 1801-2, about 260,000 bushels, and a little over 1,000,000 bls.; in 1803 about 686,416 bushels, and 1,311,853 bls.—valued jointly at \$9,310,000; from 1804 to 1806 little more than 74,000 bushels, and 789,000 bls.—valued together at about \$7,300,000 on an average; in 1807 about 767,000 bushels, and 1,249,819 bls.—value \$10,753,000; in 1808 about 87,000 bushels and 264,000 bls.—value \$1,936,000; from 1809 to 1811 about 320,000 bushels, and 1,029,000 bls.—value about \$9,000,000 on an average; in 1812 about 53,832 bushels, and 1,443,492 bls.—value \$13,687,000; in 1813 about 288,535 bushels, and 1,260,943 bls.—value \$13,591,000; in 1814, no bushels, but 193,274 bls.—value \$1,734,000.

Spain, Portugal, and Great Britain,—but chiefly the West-Indies have been the markets for our wheat and flour; in all of which countries the average annual prices from 1806 to 1813 were about \$1 50 per bushel for the former, and \$8 20 per barrel for the latter. The scarcity of 1801 created in Great Britain a demand for 216,977 bushels of our wheat, together with 479,720 bls. of our flour; and in 1807 the same country imported 669,950 bushels of the former, together with 323,968 bls. of the latter. In 1811 the war of Spain and Portugal opened a market for no less than 835,179 bls. of American flour, and 76,232 bushels of American wheat; the joint value of which was \$8,000,000, at our own ports, and must have been not less than about \$12,000,000, at the place of importation. To the Peninsula, also, we exported in 1813 as many as 973,500 bls. of flour, and 288,950 bushels of wheat,—the joint value of which in the foreign market could not be less than \$15,000,000.—Including rice, the annual average value of grain exported from the United States in 1805-6-7 was about \$12,000,000—in 1811-12-13 about \$18,000,000.

The chief support of Carolina depended upon the wreck of

Madagascar vessel in the year 1694,—from which Landgrave Thomas Smith, the governor of that province, obtained a bag of rice-seed; sowed it in his garden; found it grew luxuriantly; and hence established the practicability of cultivating the grain in the low grounds of the southern states. In 1724, about 18,000 bls. of rice were exported from all the colonies in 1733, about 36,580 bls. from South Carolina; in 1739, about 71,484 bls.; in 1740, about 91,110 bls.;—from November 1760 to September 1761 about 100,000 bls.; and in 1770 no less than 150,515 bls.—value \$1,530,000—nearly one half of which was shipped to England. From 1791 to 1796 the average annual export was about 126,000 tierces;—in 1791 they were only 60,111; from 1798 to 1802 the average number was about 104,000; from 1803 to 1807 about 83,000,—value on an average about \$2,300,000; in 1808 only 9,228 in number,—in value \$221,000; but from 1809 to 1813 the former was on an average of 113,000,—the latter \$2,336,000; when in the next year the tierces fell to 11,476, and their value to \$230,000.

For Indian corn we were not obliged to depend upon shipwrecks;—nature had made it indigenous; and nothing was wanting from man but a little cultivation and care. It grows in every section of the United States; and is exported either in the raw state, or as manufactured into meal. The West-Indies are the chief market for meal,—though in times of scarcity it has now and then been carried to Europe. In 1770 the colonial exportation was 578,349 bushels,—valued at \$149,000; of which 15 went to Ireland, 175,221 to the south of Europe, 20 to Africa, and the remainder 402,958 to the West-Indies. The average annual export from 1791 to 1802 was about 1,487,000 bushels of corn; and 351,000 of meal:—from 1803 to 1807 about 1,386,000 bushels of corn, and 121,000 of meal,—average annual value \$1,648,000: in 1808 about 249,533 bushels of corn, and 30,818 of meal,—value \$298,000; but from 1809 to 1813 the average annual export nearly recovered its former quantity, and amounted to about 1,579,000 bushels of corn, and 86,600 of meal,—value on an average \$1,671,600; from which in 1814 the corn fell to 61,284 bushels, and the meal to 26,438,—value \$170,000.

We grow considerable quantities of rye: but we export very little,—both because there is commonly enough raised in Europe

to supply its own consumption, and because too many Americans had rather consume it after it has passed through the distillery. In 1801 the gallons of spirits distilled from grain and fruit amounted to 10,000,000; but ten years afterwards, in 1810, to no less than 20,000,000. The proportion of the materials to the product is about one bushel of rye to two and a half or three gallons of liquor; and of course during that year no less than about 6,000,000 of the former were worked up in our distilleries. To the above quantity we must add about 6,834,878 gallons of imported foreign spirits, together with about 5,000,000 of domestic manufacture from molasses;—and we have for the annual consumption of the United States nearly 32,000,000 of gallons, or on an average about four and a half gallons to every individual. In 1801, the scarcity in Great Britain demanded an exportation of 392,276 bushels of rye;—but the average annual number from 1791 to 1811 was no more than about 6 or 8,000. In 1812 the number was 82,705; in 1813 about 140,136. —Of oats the average annual exportation for the last 20 years has been about 70,000 bushels; of peas, about 90,000; of beans about 30, or 40,000; and of potatoes not more than 60,000.—From 1802 to 1807 the average value of annual exports consisting of vegetable food was about \$ 12,850,000: in 1808 it was only \$ 2,550,000 but from 1809 to 1813* it rose more than to the former amount and was \$ 14,446,000 at an average. In 1814 it was as low as \$ 2,179,000.

Our exports of animal produce are chiefly from the northern states, and to the West Indies. In 1770 the colonists exported 244 bls. of beef and pork to the south of Europe, and 2,870 tons to the West Indies—or in all about 28,944 bls.; the value of which was then estimated at about \$ 277,000. In 1791 the quantity of beef exported was 62,771 bls.—in 1807† about 84,209; the quantity of pork in the former year 27,781 bls.—in the latter‡ 39,274: and the average export of the 17 years was about 87,000 bls. of beef, and 58,000 bls. of pork. From 1808 to 1811 the beef rose from 20,101 bls. to 76,743 bls.; but sunk again through the three

* In 1811 it was 20,390,000 dollars.

† In 1804 no less than 134,896 bls.

‡ In 1804 as many as 111,532 bls.

following years to 20,297 bls. and during the first period the pork rose from 15 to 37,000 bls.; but sunk during the second to only 4,040 bls.

In 1770 the colonists exported 177,613 lbs. of butter—55,997 lbs. of cheese—and 185,143 lbs. of tallow and lard: and since we could obtain any authentic returns from our custom-houses, the yearly average exportation of these articles has been between 1 and 2,000,000 lbs.; for the greater part of which, as well as for beef, pork, and live stock, the West India islands have afforded a market. During the late European war the *British* West Indies received large quantities of our beef and pork;—and in 1804, particularly, they opened a market for no less than 45,656 bls. of the former, and 47,926 bls. of the latter. The war of Spain and Portugal, also, rendered it necessary to export to the Peninsula, during the year 1811, about 15,000 bls. of beef.—From 1803 to 1807 inclusive the average annual exports of animal produce may be estimated as follows:—of beef, tallow, hides, and live cattle \$ 1,336,000; of butter and cheese \$ 492,000; of pork, bacon, lard, and live hogs \$ 1,260,000; of horses and mules \$ 317,600; and of sheep \$ 23,300*—aggregate value on an average \$ 3,827,000 yearly: in 1807 the first fell to \$ 265,000; the second to \$ 196,000; the third to \$ 398,000; the fourth to \$ 105,000; and the fifth to \$ 4,000—the aggregate value to \$968,000: whence to 1811—when the aggregate value was nearly \$ 3,000,000 again—there was an annual increase of about \$ 666,666 on an average; but from that year to 1814,—when the whole was only \$ 482,000,—there was a yearly average diminution of about \$ 625,000.

III. Tobacco was an aboriginal American plant; but it is now used in some shape or other in almost every quarter of the globe. About the year 1584 it was introduced into England by sir Walter Raleigh against the violent opposition of his sovereign king James I:—in 1624, however, it became a royal monopoly; and it has always been the staple commodity of Maryland and Virginia.—For ten years preceding 1709 the average annual export of tobacco to England was about 28,858,666 lbs. A great part of what Great Britain receives is exported again to the continent of Europe;—

* In 1805 only 1,500 dollars.

inasmuch as between 1761 and 1775 the average annual import of England was more than 48,000,000 lbs. and that of Scotland more than 36,000 lbs.; of which the former exported more than 39,000 lbs., and the latter more than 34,000 lbs. The article of tobacco has always composed about one third of our exports;—and from 1791 to 1801 inclusive—though the fluctuation was extreme—the average yearly quantity was about 80,000 hogsheads of the raw,—and about 174,500 lbs. of the manufactured*—together with about 80,000 lbs. of snuff:† and from 1802 to 1807 inclusive the first was about 77,000 hogsheads, the second about 303,000 lbs., and the third about 36,000 lbs.—value of the raw about \$ 6,000,000 on an average; but the next year they sunk respectively to 9,576 hogsheads; 26,656 lbs., and 25,845 lbs.—value of the raw as before \$ 833,000. Between 1809 and 1812 inclusive the average export of raw was about 50,000 hogsheads—of the manufactured about 531,000 lbs.—of snuff about 26,000 lbs.—value of the raw, a little more than \$ 3,000,000 on an average: but in 1813–14 the first was only about 4,000 hogsheads, the second 82,000 lbs. the third nothing,—value of the raw as before \$ 189,000. From 1806 to 1814 the average prices per hogshead at the place of exportation were 79, 88, 87, 70, 60, 60, 70, 67, 74 dollars.

“IV. Cotton is a native of the tropical regions, in every quarter of the world. It is mentioned by Herodotus as growing in India, at the time he wrote his history. It was found among the Mexicans and Peruvians, on the first discovery of America; and among the latter, the manufacture of it was carried to no inconsiderable extent. Previous to the American revolution, it was cultivated in the southern states for domestic use.

“Soon after the peace of 1783, small quantities were exported from Georgia.‡ It was not, however, cultivated to much extent, for exportation, in the United States, until about the year 1791 or 1792. Since that period, it has become the great staple of the states of South-Carolina and Georgia, and next to grain, the most valuable of all the exports of the United States.

“American cotton has been generally known by the names of sea-island and upland cotton. The former grows along the sea coast, has a black seed; is of a long staple, and is easily cleaned or separated from the seed; the latter grows

* In 1791 the number was 81,122—in 1791 only 12,801—but in 1801 no less than 472,282.

† In 1791 only 15,689—in 1796 as many as 267,000—but in 1801 only 52,297.

‡ Ramsay's History of South-Carolina.

on the upland, at a distance from the coast, has a green seed, is of a short staple, and until the invention of a machine for the purpose, was so difficult to be cleaned, or separated from the seed, as to be scarcely worth the trouble and expense of cultivation. This machine was invented by Mr. Eli Whitney, a native of Massachusetts, who was accidentally in Georgia, in the year 1795; a gentleman of education, and distinguished for his mechanical genius. This machine has enriched the southern planter by enabling him to cultivate, to the greatest advantage, one of the most valuable staples in the world.

"Before its invention, very little upland cotton was cultivated, and scarcely a single pound was exported from the United States; afterwards, the culture of this species of cotton became the principal object of the planter in South-Carolina and Georgia; and in the year 1807, more than fifty-five millions of pounds of upland cotton was exported, and which was valued at more than eleven and a half millions of dollars. It has rarely occurred, that the invention of a single machine has, at once, changed the employment of so many thousand people, and has added so much to the wealth and resources of a nation. In the year 1792, the value of the exports of the United States, was only \$20,753,093, (upland cotton, the growth of the United States, constituted very little, if any part of these exports,) and in the short period of fifteen years, a new article of export is produced, amounting in value to more than one half of that sum."* pp. 110-11.

So rapid has been the increase in the culture of cotton that though in 1791 the export was but 189,316 lbs.; the amount in 1807 was about 65,000,000 lbs.† In the following year it sunk to about 10,000,000 lbs.; and, though more than 90,000,000 lbs.‡ in 1810, it had dwindled down to 18,000,000 lbs. in 1814,—at the average rate of about 6,000,000 lbs. annually. Great Britain has always afforded the chief market for this article;—and though our mutual commerce has at times been restricted, she received her portion by the way of the Floridas, the Azores, Madeira, Spain,

* Mr. Whitney obtained a patent for this invention, at an early period, under the laws of the United States; and has been liberally rewarded for the right of using it, by all the cotton planting states, except the state of Georgia. South-Carolina gave him, and Mr. Miller, who was concerned with him, the sum of 50,000 dollars, for the right of using the machine in that state. In the state of Georgia, his right to the invention was disputed, and his machine was used, with the exception of a few individuals, without making him any compensation. He was compelled therefore, in that state, to have recourse to the judicial tribunals for redress. Owing, however, to a defect in the first patent law, and to the powerful interest opposed to him, he was unable to obtain a decision in his favor, until thirteen years of his patent had expired. This decision was had, before the circuit court of the United States, in which judge Johnson, of South-Carolina, presided. In his charge to the jury, on the trial of the case, the judge did ample justice to Mr. Whitney, as the original inventor, as well as to the importance and utility of the invention itself.

† Value \$14,232,000.

‡ Value \$15,108,000.

Portugal, and Sweden. In 1807, according to our own custom-house books, the value of cotton exported to England was \$ 11,953,378; but according to the valuation of the English inspector-general the sum was about \$ 13,481,580; which together with what Scotland received could not have made the whole value of the import into Great Britain less than about \$15,000,000. In 1787 Great Britain imported more than 22,000,000 lbs. and in 1800 about 56,000,000 lbs. of cotton; not one pound of which was shipped from the United States:—but in 1807, when the former imported 282,667 bags, our own country furnished 171,267,—at least 40,000 more than the half; and the same proportion was continued up to 1810–11 when the whole amount in the respective years was 561,173 and 326,281 bags,—of which 240,516 of the former, and 128,482 of the latter were the produce of the southern states. Each bag or bale contains about 300 lbs; and accordingly we furnished the English in 1810, by their own accounts, with 72,154,800 lbs.—considerably more than half of their whole import. By our own custom-house books it appears that the export from the United States in 1800 was about 16,000,000 lbs.,—and in 1807 about 53,000,000 lbs.—showing an annual increase of more than 4,600,000 lbs., on an average. In the following year they fell down to 7,992,593 lbs.; but between 1809 to 1811 they rose again from 13 up to 47,000,000 lbs. by an average yearly increase of more than 11,000,000 lbs.—Europe must always depend upon tropical countries for a supply of cotton. It was one among the many projects of the late emperor Napoleon to make France supply her own consumption of this article. Circular requests were sent to the prefects of the different departments for the encouragement of its cultivation: a treatise was written by M. Lasteyrié ‘*du cotonnier, et de sa culture*,’ the seed was sent for to Spain, Italy, and our own country; a premium of about 10 cents was offered on every pound which should be raised; and—that was the last we ever heard of it. France has always received the greater part of her fine cotton fabrics from Great Britain; and in 1806 her import from that country was estimated at no less than \$13,000,000. From our own country she imported about 3,800,000 lbs. upon an average between the years 1800 and 1808;—but if she received any during 1809, 10, and 11, it was by some indirect transporta-

tion.—During 1811, 12, and 13 our own consumption was on an average about 20,000,000 lbs. annually.

The next article of importance is flax-seed; of which, in 1770, the North-American colonies exported 312,612 bushels,—6,780 to England and 305,083 to Ireland,—valued then at about \$139,000. From 1791 to 1802 inclusive the yearly average export was about 280,000 bushels; and from 1803 to 1807 the number was nearly 300,000,—value about \$445,000 on an average; but in the following year the former fell to 102,000,—the latter to 131,000; and though from 1809 to 1813 inclusive the number averaged more than 224,000 bushels, and the value about \$393,000, the one sunk in the next year to 14,800 and the other to 31,000. Ireland has been the chief market for flax-seed.

Indigo is indigenous to Hindostan only;—but it was naturalized in South-Carolina, about 1741, by a miss Eliza Lucas, daughter of George Lucas, who was then the governor of Antigua;—where as well as in the other West-India islands it had been cultivated with success. Before cotton became an object of so much importance indigo was one of the principal articles exported from South-Carolina and Georgia;—inasmuch as in 1794 the quantity shipped from these two states was no less than 1,550,880 lbs.;* but in 1814 it was hardly worth the trouble of being reported. In 1748 the British parliament granted a bounty of 6d. a pound on plantation indigo, when it was worth three-fourths as much as the best that was brought from France; and in 1754 the quantity exported from South-Carolina alone was 216,924 lbs. From Nov. 1760 to Sept. 1761 the export amounted to 399,366 lbs.; and, soon after the revolution, to 1,107,000 lbs.

But besides our agricultural produce we export some manufactured articles; such as, 1st, those of domestic materials,—soap, tallow-candles, leather, boots, shoes, saddlery, hats, spirits, beer, starch, furniture, coaches, cordage, canvass, linseed-oil, iron, snuff, silk-shoes, wax-candles, tobacco, bricks, turpentine, wool, cotton-cards;—and 2dly, those of foreign materials,—rum, refined-sugar, chocolate, gun-powder, brass, copper, and medi-

* This is the greatest quantity ever exported in one year; and a part of it was probably of foreign production.

cines. From 1803 to 1807 the export of the first class amounted to an average value of \$1,512,000; and that of the second to about \$604,000; in all to a little more than \$2,116,000: but in the following year the numbers stood respectively at \$309,000 and \$35,000,—total \$344,000; and though through the four next years they almost recovered their lost amount and were above \$1,455,000 of domestic materials—\$333,000, of foreign—of both about \$1,788,000 on an average; yet during 1813 and 1814 they were lower than ever,—being about \$300,000 of the former and \$16,000 of the latter—in all \$316,000.—The subjoined table will exhibit a summary view of the value of each department of our domestic exports from 1803 to 1814:—

Years.	Of the sea. dollars.	Of the Forest. dollars.	Of Manufac. dollars.	Total of the 3 dollars.	Of Agri. alone. dollars.
1803	2,635,000	4,850,000	1,355,000	8,840,000	32,995,000
1804	3,420,000	4,630,000	2,100,000	9,880,000	30,890,000
1805	2,884,000	5,261,000	2,300,000	10,445,000	31,562,000
1806	3,116,000	4,861,000	2,707,000	10,684,000	30,125,000
1807	2,804,000	5,476,000	2,120,000	10,400,000	37,832,000
1808	830,000	1,399,000	344,000	2,573,000	6,746,000
1809	1,710,000	4,583,000	1,506,000	7,799,000	23,234,000
1810	1,481,000	4,978,000	1,917,000	8,379,000	33,532,000
1811	1,413,000	5,286,000	2,376,000	9,075,000	35,556,000
1812	935,000	2,701,000	1,325,000	4,991,000	24,555,000
1813	304,000	1,107,000	390,000	1,801,000	23,119,000
1814	188,000	570,000	246,000	1,004,000	5,613,000

From this it appears that in ordinary times the produce of agriculture constitutes about one-fourth,—of the sea about one-fifteenth,—of the forest about one-ninth,—and of manufactures about one-twentieth, of our domestic exports. In 1813 a great deal of flour and provisions was exported to Spain and Portugal; and ac-

cordingly the abridgment of our agricultural produce did not keep pace with that of the other articles.

Thus we have followed Mr. Pitkin through that part of his valuable statistical work which is devoted to the commerce of our domestic productions;—and our readers will perceive that the labour has been little else than to tread the same old beaten track of the nine digits. In order to compress our analysis into as small a space as possible, we have generally assumed some epoch when the commerce of the country has been affected by the measures of government, and, instead of following our author by stating the exports of each year separately, we have been contented,—and we believe our readers will be contented,—with the mere average yearly numbers for the respective periods. This process has had the double effect of diminishing our article and of increasing our labour:—but the subject is well worthy of our pains; and we hope at some future time to finish the two remaining divisions of the work,—that which is devoted to our commerce of foreign productions,—and that which contains the history of our national debt.

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1. *Edgar: A National Tale.* By Miss Appleton, author of *Private Education*, &c. In three vols. 12mo. pp. 826. London 1816.
 2. *Carmen Nuptial: Or the Lay of the Laureate.* By Robert Southey. London, 1816. 12mo. pp. too many.

THE first of these books is dedicated to her royal highness the princess Charlotte of Wales, and of Saxe Cobourg Saalfeld; and is one of those silly rhapsodies with which loyal enthusiasm has so often gorged the public of Great Britain. The authoress was resolved that it should be thoroughly original; and, as any body could write in prose, and call the production a *Novel*, Miss Appleton thought she would gain no distinction without writing a book “between poetry and prose” (Pref. p. 8,)—and inventing a new title of Grecian and Roman etymology. *Epicast*, from *επος* and *castus*—chaste narration—was to be the new term with which the

authoress intended to enrich our literary nomenclature:—but fortunately she had friends; and they were friends indeed; for it was by their suggestion that Miss Appleton consented, for this time, not to make herself absolutely ridiculous. This, however, we are given to understand, is only a temporary abandonment; and our authoress has substituted the plain, unvarnished word *Tale*—merely because ‘it is (she thinks) sufficiently authorized by general use.’

But to be serious,—we have chosen to take some notice of the books before us in order to correct a prejudice which is too widely diffused through our country—that every production of the English press must of course be excellent. We will hazard the assertion, that, proportionally to the whole number of books published in the respective countries, there are more nonsensical productions in British, than in American literature. In England there are nearly a *thousand* professional authors,—in the United States there is hardly a dozen:—in the former, again, we suppose there cannot be published less than *twelve hundred* new original books every year,—in the latter we question whether there are more than *fifty*. All the good English authors are sure of finding their way across the Atlantic; while the bad ones,—like our own bad ones,—are obliged to slumber at home. Our judgment on the general character of English literature will necessarily be formed from a perusal of such works as we are permitted to see; and we have no chance of being disabused, except when the nature of the subject or some other circumstance extraneous to the merits of the book itself, is sufficient to import one of their bad productions into our own country. Such we suppose to have been the fate of the novel on our table:—and to show those of our readers, who do not know already, that there are writers in England of what Englishmen sneeringly call the true *American stamp*,—we shall proceed to make a few extracts from Miss Appleton’s national *Epicast*. They will then be able to judge for themselves, whether it merits the epithet of *chaste*, in any thing but the matter of the Tale. Thus the first book opens:—

“Hail, my country! thou England greatly superb and generously tender—guardian of liberty, protector of innocence;—thou who hast for ages immemorial succoured the oppressed, subdued the proud, and wept on the fallen. Fair isle, which hast a tear for every misery, a hero for every exploit, a heart for

every sentiment; whose smile is caught up with ecstasy by surrounding empires, and whose frown causes nations to tremble. Sweet Albion, I salute thee!

"And thou precept, child of virtue, without whose influence the soul of man degenerates from its noble purpose; thou who alone drawest the line between civilized man and savage, I bow to thy supreme influence, and I hail thee!

"I would chant thy renown of old, my country; precept, I would tell of thy power; angel of virtue, guide my pen, and genius of England, do thou inspire me!

We hardly know where to begin next; for it is all alike. But read, if you can, the following description of a table. 'The dainty head of the fine ox,' 'the *sweet-breathing* cow,' the '*generous* plants,' and 'the *jocund* ale' will be peculiarly relished.

"Three tables of an hundred feet in length were filled with guests. The pure flocks of British sweet pasture; the bleating calf which had two days before, bounded among wild thyme and marjoram of the southern mountain; the fine ox that had tossed his dainty head at the tenderest blade—all had bent to the necessity of man. They graced the hospitable board, submissive to the lord of creation. The sweet-breathing cow refused not her share of nutriment; bowls of the richest cream and milk, with the most healthful roots, and, above all, the staff of life from the least and most generous of plants, were added in noble profusion. No one needed solicitation; no heart would wrong the host, or draw a crimson blush of shame on the cheek of the young baron, by desiring an assurance of welcome. Edgar watched his father.—"Heed me not, my son," returned he; "fill the spacious goblet; send round the enlivening mead; broach the *jocund* ale, and let merriment shake the vaulted roof."

The sentence which follows is still more exquisite. Here, in pursuance of her determination to be original in all things, Miss Appleton inverts the vulgar order of nature, by making liquor rise *headlong* to the *surface*; and we almost wonder she did not think of inverting the common form of typography, by introducing the old method of boustrophedon. "The fomented liquor mantles *headlong* to the *surface* (says she) and turbulently hisses over the brim; the lip stoops down to kiss the *firetty* anger, and quells its bubbling rage." A writer in this strain, could not long prevent herself from breaking out into downright poetry. Even here the words *hiss* and *kiss* had like to have jingled into rhyme; and on the next page the authoress could contain no longer:—

"Bellow, ye trumpets of fame!
For whom?
For him that is brave,
That can ride on a wave,

That can sing on a spear,
 That can grin at death near,
 When country or king needs the same.
 Blast the trump!
 'Tis for the dead.
 Hark! they toss the haughty head."

From these peaceful scenes we are now to conduct our readers to the field of battle,—where 'innumerable *shoals* begin their *archery*,' and some of the combatants must stop occasionally to 'give wonder breath,'—a thing, by the way, which *we* have often stopped to do in the perusal of the *Epicast*.

"Now the innumerable shoals of French begin their archery; which is hotly returned upon them by the men of England. Arrows whirled in the air as the dust, which is poised for a moment in the hurricane's top, and then clouds as it precipitates. The horse of the enemy, assailed from every point, fall back over their lords, and open the confusion. A few English men at arms dash forward, and broach close carnage.

"Meantime, in front of the battail, with his four esquires, fought the lord James Audley. Opposition sank at his approach, and even the most valiant of the foe startled, and stopped to give wonder breath. But now the earls of Warwick, Salisbury, and Suffolk, tear down another quarter, with sword, spear, and battle axe; and the enemy's second battail, in dismay, falls back upon their commander, the duke of Normandy. Hotter than ever waxed the strife, thick fly the arrows from every side, whilst proud England's banner waved high over the enemy's ground."

We could amuse our readers with recitations of many more passages in the same strain;—but we are afraid they will listen to us no longer. Miss Appleton has been unfortunate in almost every particular:—and it is hardly possible to conceive how she should think of complimenting the princess of Saxe Cobourg by Elgiva her parallel character,—a name which is associated with every thing unfortunate in English royal matches.

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We are more disposed to commiserate than to criticise Mr. Southey on this occasion. Every topic in the circle of his profession had been successively resorted to from 'his master Spencer' down to himself: they had all sung the same tune in its different changes till the permutation and combination of the eight notes were absolutely exhausted; yet a *carmen nuptiale* must be produced:—and what could he do? We can only tell our readers what

he *has* done. The prince and princess of Cobourg are placed in a convenient nursery; where they sit and receive successive lectures from personifications of Britannia, the British constitution, and all the numerous departments of English church and state. When the exhibition is over,—which by the way is the most monotonous imaginable,—he winds up his Lay with an *envoy* of “go little book,” &c.

Here then let us quit these tame productions; and see if it be not possible to obtain from other British publications on the same subject, something of more interest and importance relative to prince Leopold of Saxe Cobourg. As Englishmen have no more fighting to do for the present, the whole energies of the nation are turned to reading all sorts of books; and if any subject accidentally acquires importance, or can be forced to acquire it, the whole literary corps immediately set themselves to work: every language and every library is laid under contribution; nor do the pursuers give over the search until every item of information is hunted up and sent into the world. This has been particularly true with respect to the marriage of prince Leopold with princess Charlotte. The covers of almost all the English magazines are filled with advertisements of books relating to one or the other of the parties; and, however obscure might have been the history of the house of Saxony at the beginning of this year, it will be as familiar as the spelling-book before the commencement of the next.

Prince Leopold was born Dec. 16, 1790; and is the third son of Frederic Josias, who commanded in chief the allied armies at the commencement of the French revolution, and whose name was associated by his enemy with that of Pitt as a bye-word of reproach. As the house of Saxony was somewhat connected with that of Russia, prince Leopold entered the Russian,—and for a similar reason his brother prince Ferdinand entered the Austrian army. When the former was about fifteen years old, (in 1806) the French stormed and took the castle of Saalfeld: prince Leopold was driven away with the rest of the family; and as soon as Buonaparte was informed that his brother prince Earnest, now duke of Cobourg, was in the Prussian army, he ordered possession to be taken of his territories, and a contribution to be levied upon the circumjacent country. In 1810 Napoleon insisted that

prince Leopold should quit the Russian, and prince Ferdinand the Austrian service:—but they both were resolute in refusal; and accordingly the French minister,—to whom was referred, under the mediation of Russia, the adjustment of the limits of Cobourg,—told the negotiators plainly—*que l'empereur ne ferait rien pour ses ennemis*—that the emperor did nothing for his enemies. Prince Leopold went to Paris for the purpose of remonstrating;—but he was briefly assured that the alternative was the loss of the principality, or the resignation of his office: such an assurance was decisive; and he sacrificed his own prospects to the welfare of his family. During 1811 he devoted himself to the reparation of the family estate; but in the following year he again tendered his services to the emperor of Russia. Alexander thought the step premature; and the prince accordingly set out on a distant tour to Vienna, Italy, and Switzerland.

In 1813 he co-operated with his two brothers in attempting the emancipation of Germany; and while Ernest was negotiating at Berlin, and Ferdinand at Vienna, Leopold first repaired to Munich, and afterwards to Poland,—where the emperor of Russia accepted of his second offer of entering the imperial army. Thus he acquired the reputation of being the first to break the Confederation of the Rhine. On the 2nd May, of the same year, he was in the battle of Lutzen,—on the 20th and 21st, in that of Bautzen: and during the negotiations at Prague he is said to have been the only stranger who was admitted to interviews with the Emperor Francis. When the armistice was at an end he repaired to the frontier of Saxony; and on the 26th, assisted prince Eugene of Wurtemberg in defending the fortress of Königstein against a brisk attack of general Vandamme. On the following day the corps took position on the side of Pirna: prince Leopold was entrusted with the command of the cavalry; and the French were repulsed in a second attack. But Osterman's division—to which he had been attached—was now obliged to retreat; and on the 29th, he was so closely engaged with the enemy that the capture of prince Leopold was stated in the bulletin of the emperor Napoleon. During the whole retreat, in short, prince Leopold was now and then obliged to turn and fight; and his conduct on these occasions procured for him the cross of the military order of St. George,

which was bestowed by Alexander on the field of battle, the 30th of August, 1813. For the same reason he was subsequently invested with the Austrian military order of Maria Theresa.

Prince Leopold, with his cavalry, assisted in beating the French at Leipzig, on the 16th, 17th, and 18th, of October; and thenceforward continued with the allies till their entry into Paris on the 31st of March, 1814. He accompanied the sovereigns to England; and though they left the island in *June*, he continued there till *July*, &c. &c.

Previous to 1815 the principality of Cobourg comprised seventeen and a half German square miles,—with a population of about 57,266 souls, and an annual income of about 50,000 pounds sterling. The congress of Vienna made an addition of territory, which increased the number of inhabitants and the amount of revenue about one-third.

The Travels of Ali Bey, in Morocco, Tripoli, Cyprus, Egypt, Arabia, Syria, and Turkey, between the years 1803 and 1807. Written by himself, and illustrated by nine engravings. London, 1816. Longman, Hurst, Rees, Orme, and Brown. 2 vols. 4to. pp. 339 and 373. Philadelphia. M. Carey. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 402 and 388.

THE publishers of the London edition pledge themselves, and offer in support of their assertion what appears to us very satisfactory testimony, that this is the genuine work of a real traveller, who is now living on the continent of Europe, much respected by the learned:—and we are assured from other sources that he is a Spaniard, by the name of Badia; who was well known in England some years ago, and was in London in 1814. Indeed there can be no question as to the genuineness of the book or the qualifications of the author. He was master, it appears, of the Arabic language; and so skilfully did he sustain his assumed character of Syrian and mussulman, that he was every where received among the jealous Moors, Arabians and Turks, not only with-

out suspicion, but with esteem and friendship. They acknowledged him as the son of Othman Bey, of the royal race of the Abasides, and gave him the titles of *el emir*, 'the prince;' *el fakih*, 'doctor of the law;' *escherif*, 'of the blood of Mohammed,' and, 'servant of the house of God.' In his work, however, he does not admit that he played the impostor. On the contrary, he tells us, with very amusing gravity, of his ablutions, his fasts, his prayers, and his opinions on controverted doctrinal points. But he speaks occasionally of the superstitions of his fellow-disciples in a manner so irreverent, and his sneers are so often visible in the midst of his professions, that we should be satisfied, without any other proof, that he was no true believer in the prophet of Medina.

He acquaints us, in the introduction to his book, that, having studied the sciences which are cultivated in Europe, he determined to visit the Mahometan States, and, while engaged in performing a pilgrimage to Mecca, to observe the manners, customs and nature of the countries through which he should pass, in order that he might make the journey of some utility to the country which he might at last select for his abode.

Accordingly, on the 23d of June, 1803, he embarked at Tariffa, in Spain, and, after crossing the straits of Gibraltar, in four hours arrived at Tangiers. His remarks on this occasion are striking:

"The sensation which we experience on making this short passage for the first time, can be compared only to the effect of a dream. Passing, in so short an interval of time, to a world absolutely new, and which has not the smallest resemblance to that which we have quitted, we seem to have been actually transported into another planet.

"In all countries of the world the inhabitants of the neighbouring states are more or less united by mutual relation: they amalgamate in some degree together, and intermix so much in language, habits and customs, that we pass from one to the other by gradations almost imperceptible. But this constant law of nature does not prevail between the inhabitants of the two shores of the straits of Gibraltar: they, notwithstanding their vicinity, are as much strangers to each other as a Frenchman to a Chinese.

"In the countries of the east, if we observe successively the inhabitants of Arabia, Syria, Turkey, Walachia and Germany, a long series of transitions marks, in some manner, almost all the different degrees which separate the barbarian from the civilized man. But here the observer, in the same morning, touches the two extremities of the chain of civilization, and, within the petty

space of two leagues and two-thirds (which is the shortest distance between the two coasts), he finds a difference of twenty centuries." Vol. i. pp. 19, 20.

The name and attainments of Ali Bey soon gained him notice. His manners and address were so insinuating that he associated with the most powerful and distinguished of the inhabitants, and obtained considerable influence over them. His accurate predictions of eclipses especially, caused him to be regarded by them as a wonderful being. Muley Suliman, the sultan of Morocco, happening at this time to visit Tangier, Ali Bey was presented to him, and very favourably received. The sultan asked him many questions concerning the countries he had visited, the languages he spoke, and the sciences he had studied,—praised God for having caused him to leave the country of the infidels,—regretted that he had deferred so long his visit to Morocco,—and invited him to accompany him to Mequinez and Fez. The traveller proceeded to these cities, and afterwards to Morocco; where he met with the sultan again, and received from him many honourable attentions and gratifications;—among others, the absolute donation of a villa called Semelalia, with the lands, gardens, olive-tree plantations and town-house attached to it. He next visited Mogador, and returned to Morocco, where he was attacked with a severe illness. On his recovery he informed the sultan of his approaching departure for Mecca. The sultan, he assures us, was very anxious to detain him still longer, and made him very brilliant offers for that purpose; but without success. The traveller was inflexible; and he set out for Algiers, by the way of Fez, where he was delayed a considerable time. From thence he proceeded to Oushda, and here his progress was again stopped, in consequence of the news he received that a revolution had broken out in Algiers, and that much blood had been shed between the Turks and Arabs, in that part of the country through which he had purposed to pass. At the same time the sultan, whom the intrigues of Ali Bey's enemies had now rendered inimical to him, sent a military party to watch his movements. The commander of this escort took him back to Larash, where he was compelled to embark alone,—his people being forcibly prevented from accompanying him,—on board a corvette, bound to Tripoli, which the sultan had ordered to be prepared for his reception. The traveller suffered much during

this journey, in crossing an extensive sandy desert, entirely destitute of water, and in which not a tree was to be seen, nor a rock which could offer a shelter or a shade. 'A transparent atmosphere, an intense sun darting his beams upon our heads, a ground almost white, and commonly of a concave form, like a burning glass, slight breezes, scorching like a flame,'—present (we are told) a faithful picture of this frightful district. The narrative of the sufferings of the party in this desert, and of their providential deliverance from perishing with thirst, is highly interesting.

The greater part of the first volume is occupied with the traveller's observations on the government, religion, customs and manners of Morocco. The administration of what is called justice in that country is thus described:—

"The kaid, lying on a carpet and some cushions, prepares to hear both parties, who are placed, squatting down, near the door of the hall, and the discussion begins. Sometimes the kaid and the parties begin speaking, or rather bawling aloud, altogether, for a quarter of an hour, and without any possibility of understanding each other, till the soldiers, who are always standing behind the parties, strike them violently with their fists, to make them silent. The kaid then pronounces his judgment, and directly afterwards both the parties are turned out of doors by the soldiers, with redoubled blows, and the sentence is executed without remission. It is a remarkable circumstance that all who present themselves for judgment before the kaid, are, after the decision, turned out in this manner by the soldiers, who continually cry out, "*sirr, sirr*" (run, run) Sometimes the kaid gives audience at the door of his house: In this case he is seated in a chair, and a crowd presses round him." Vol. i. p. 34.

In extraordinary cases he sometimes sends the parties to the *cadi*, or civil judge. The proceedings before the last mentioned officer are said not to be quite so tumultuous as those before the kaid. 'His decisions are taken from the precepts of the Koran and from tradition, so far as they are not in opposition to the pleasure of the sovereign. After a case has been judged by the kaid or by the *cadi*, there is no appeal for the parties but to the sultan himself. There are no intermediate tribunals.'

Concerning the mode of living of the Moors, their food, the arrangements of their repasts, their dress, their domestic economy, their amusements, their architecture, their music, their sciences (if they may be so called), their nuptial and funeral cere-

monies, the author presents us with many minute and curious particulars.

"When the marriage contract has been signed, the family of the bridegroom sends generally some presents to that of the bride: they are carried thither by night, in much ceremony, with a great number of lamps, candles and torches, and accompanied by a band of those wretched musicians whom I have already noticed, and also by a troop of women, uttering shrill exclamations.

"The bride is conducted in form to her husband, with a retinue like that which attends the children at their circumcision. The first time that I saw this ceremony at Tangier was about six in the morning. The young bride was carried on the shoulders of four men, in a kind of cylindrical basket, which was lined on its outside with white linen, and covered over with a lid of a conical form, painted of various colours, like those which they put on their tables. This basket was so small that I should have thought it impossible to have placed a woman in it: it looked altogether as if they were carrying a large dish of victuals to the bridegroom. When it arrived he lifted up the lid, and then for the first time beheld his future wife." Vol. i. pp. 39, 40.

"The mahometan religion is extremely simple; it has no mysteries, no sacraments, no intermediate persons between God and man, known by the name of priests or ministers; no altars, images or ornaments. God is invisible, the heart of man is his altar, and every mussulman is high priest. According to the *El Hhaddiss*, or the canonical tradition, the prophet has declared the essence of his religion to consist in the following sentence: "Mahometanism is established on five fundamentals; viz. The profession of the faith; '*There is no God but one God, and Mouhammed is his messenger*;' the saying of prayers, giving of alms, fasting on Ramadan, and making a pilgrimage to the house of God." Notwithstanding this simplicity, there is, perhaps, not a religion in the world which has had so many commentators, expositors and writers. Its worship is divided into four orthodox rites, which are the *Hhaneffi*, the *Maleki*, the *Hhanbeli* and the *Schaffi*, names of the four Imans who founded them. The first of these rites is that observed by the Turks, the second by the people of Morocco and by the western Arabians, and the two others are followed by various tribes and nations of Arabia and Asia. With regard to the dogma these rites do not differ; their variation is only in their religious ceremonies." Vol. i. pp. 105, 6.

Besides a firm belief in the doctrines of his religion, the obligation of giving alms is imperious on every mussulman, according to his circumstances. These alms consist of the charitable tithes, the paschal alms, the foundations of a pious nature, and the alms of common charity. The charitable tithes are equal to nearly two and a half per cent. on the amount of a mussulman's annual

revenue. The paschal alms are those given before sun-rise to the poor, the first day of Little Easter. The paschal sacrifice consists of a sheep or a camel, which is to be killed on the first day of Great Easter. Every mussulman who keeps house must conform to this rule. After having killed the animal with his own hand, he eats a part of it roasted, and gives the rest, which must exceed a third part, to the poor. The pious foundations consist of the erection of mosques, fountains, hospitals, schools, or places of rest for the travellers. The acts of common charity, which in other religions are only recommended, are almost of absolute obligation on a mussulman. 'He dares not sit down to dinner without inviting those who are near him to partake of it, of whatever condition or religion they may be; and he cannot refuse assistance to any poor person who may apply to him, if he have the means.' In some respects, however, this religion has degenerated into a mischievous, cruel and barbarous superstition. The following account is given of the pretended Mahometan *saints*:—

“ Among the mussulmen, to be a saint is a condition of life, or rather a trade; and it is taken up and quitted arbitrarily. Sometimes it is obtained by inheritance. *Sidi Mohamed el Hadji* was a saint greatly respected at Tangier. After his death they revered his sepulchre, which was placed in the chapel which I have described; and his younger brother, who has inherited his sanctity, is also venerated. This man is a great rogue, who from time to time came to pay me a visit, which was considered as a great favour by the inhabitants. His chapel and his house are a safe retreat for all criminals who want to escape the pursuits of justice. No mussulman would dare to enter his dwelling, without having prepared for it by a legal ablution, with water taken from the well which is close to his door; but I, who, by a special grace granted to my high birth, was looked upon as superior to any of them, entered sometimes on horseback, with my servant, into the saint's abode, without any ablution whatsoever.

“ There is another saint, much respected at Tangier, who also became my friend. He was a better sort of man; for, after telling him that he was a rogue, who was cheating his fellow-citizens, he owned the truth, and laughed with me in secret at the credulity of the world. He repeated often his favourite saying, that fools are made for the amusement of men of ability.” Vol. i. p. 48.

In the persecution of the Jews these musselmen hardly fall short of the most intolerant of their christian neighbours. The

very children of the Mahomedans 'will insult and strike a Jew, whatever be his age and infirmities, without his being allowed to complain, or even to defend himself.' The quarter for the Jews, at Morocco, is by itself; and they dare not come into the town, unless barefoot. They are treated with the utmost contempt.

"Among the women of this religion who go into the streets with unveiled faces, I have seen some that were handsome, and even of great beauty. Most of them are of a fair complexion. Their rose and jasmin faces would charm Europeans; their delicate features are very expressive, and their eyes enchanting. These perfect beauties, worthy to serve as models to a Grecian sculptor, are treated with disdain, and, like all others, obliged to walk barefoot, and to prostrate themselves before ugly negro women who live with the mussulmen. The male infants of the Jews are also handsome; but as they grow up they get common, and the Jews of a certain age are all ugly. It is possible that the shocking slavery in which they live may cause this change in their countenances." Vol. i. p. 180.

These Jews, too, have their pretended saints, 'who live, and live well,' at the expense of their unfortunate, deluded brethren.

The principal cities of Morocco have numerous mosques, of which Fez alone is said to contain more than two hundred. The principal one can boast of the singularity of having a covered place for women, who may choose to participate in the public prayers. This circumstance is peculiar to this building; 'for, as the prophet has not assigned any place for women in his paradise, the Mahometans give them no places in the mosques, and have exempted them from the obligation of frequenting the public prayers.' To this circumstance, perhaps, the degradation of the female sex, in the Mahometan nations, may, in a great degree, be attributed. The mosques and sepulchres dedicated to the Mahometan saints serve as asylums for innocence against the attempts of despotism: but they also yield a shelter to the most atrocious criminals; and, in some of them, even those who commit high treason are protected.

The two greatest saints of all the empire of Morocco are *Sidi Ali Benhamet* and *Sidi Alarbi Benmate*; who almost decide on the fate of the empire. The districts in which they reside have no governor appointed by the sultan: the inhabitants pay no taxes, and are entirely ruled by them. They preach submission to

the sultan, domestic peace, and the practice of virtue. There is not a woman in the empire who would not seek an occasion to consult them; our traveller himself had once the honour of an interview with Sidi Ali, who quieted, as he gravely asserts, *some scruples in his too delicate conscience.*

The despotism which for such a long time has weighed down these countries, has brought the inhabitants to the necessity of hiding their money, and to dress and to manage their domestic economy with all possible dissimulation. 'None of them affects the show of luxury, be he ever so rich, except the near relations of the sultan and the scherifs Edrissi.'

From Larash our traveller set sail for Tripoli, where he arrived, after a dangerous voyage, on the 11th of November, 1805. He was soon presented to the pasha, who showed him much politeness and respect. The population of this city he computes at about 12 or 15,000 souls. The civilization is much more advanced than at Morocco. European renegadoes are appointed to places of trust, and may obtain the highest rank. The christian slaves are well treated: they are permitted to serve any one, on condition of giving a part of their earnings to the government.

The income of the sovereign is not more than 1,000,000 of francs (\$200,000) annually. His guard is composed of 300 Turks and 100 Mamelukes, mounted. Besides these he has no regular troops, except in time of war: but the Arabian tribes appear at his summons, to the number of 10,000 cavalry and 40,000 infantry. The maritime force, in 1805, consisted of 11 vessels of war, mounting altogether 103 guns.

The state, or kingdom, as it is called, of Tripoli, contains, in all its vast extent, only 2,000,000 of inhabitants. The greater part of the country is a desert, and, except the capital and its vicinity, is peopled by the most miserable of the Arabs. The authority of the government is so weak that it is dangerous to leave the capital at any distance without a powerful escort.

Ali Bey, having embraced his Mahometan friends in Tripoli as usual, *with tears in his eyes*, embarked in a Turkish vessel for Alexandria; but he was compelled, by storms and the ignorance of the captain, to land, first at Modon, on the coast of the Morea, and afterwards in the island of Cyprus, where he resided two

months. He visited Cithera, Idalia and Paphos, those celebrated places, once sacred to the goddess of love and beauty, and which all the muses have contributed to embellish. A great part of the island is still adorned by the most enchanting landscapes. Its soil is fertile, and its plains are clothed with the finest verdure. Cithera, however, is now but a miserable village. The little district in which it stands furnishes a wood of mulberry trees for silk-worms, some olive and other fruit trees, and vegetables. The women of Cithera are still said to be renowned for their beauty, and much disposed to intrigues. Idalia, too, so celebrated for its groves, is now the dullest place imaginable. Its houses are badly built, and its inhabitants are very poor.

The ruins of the ancient Paphos are on the sea coast. Adjacent are some detached and isolated rocks, the inside of each of which is excavated with regularity, so as to form habitable houses. Some of these subterranean edifices have the appearance of a palace, with courts, galleries, columns, and all the elegances of architectural ornament. The vast extent and great antiquity of these ruins induce our traveller to believe that many interesting objects might be found in them, if well directed researches were undertaken, as at Herculaneum and Pompeii. Not far from this place lies what once was the sacred garden of Venus. It is a plain on the sea coast, about two miles long, and slopes gradually towards the water. 'All the garden is now sown with grain and tobacco: there are no trees, except a few in the hollows of the rocks, and no spontaneous vegetable productions, except some miserable plants;'—'so that the celebrated spot, which was the delight of Greece and Asia, is now become the dwelling and the tenement of a poor farmer.' Ali Bey is of opinion that, if the population of the island, which even now amounts to 100,000 souls, were increased in the manner of which it is susceptible—if a liberal government secured the liberty and property of individuals, it would become one of the most happy countries of the earth.

From Cyprus this adventurous traveller proceeded to Alexandria, and from thence to Cairo. His remarks on Egypt we shall pass over, as they have not much novelty to recommend them. On the 15th of December, 1806, he set out, with a numerous caravan, for Suez, where, on the 26th of the same month, he em-

barked for Djedda, in an Arabian vessel. The singular construction of these ships, and the singular mode of navigating the Red sea, which is studded all over with dangerous rocks, are minutely described. On the 22d of January, 1807, he arrived at the city of Mecca, where he remained a considerable time, and performed all the ceremonies appointed for the Mahometan pilgrims. This city, the kaaba, or house of God, which it contains, with the surrounding territory, to a considerable extent, is esteemed sacred, and is interdicted to all unbelievers in the faith of Islam. On this account Ali Bey's description of those places, and of the fanatical rites solemnized there, and in which he assisted, forms, perhaps, the most interesting portion of his work. When the pilgrims were upon the point of entering the great space where the house of God, or el kaaba, is situated, their guide arrested their steps,

“ And, pointing with his finger towards it, said with emphasis, ‘ Schouf, schouf, el beit Allah el Haram’—‘ Look, look, the house of God, the prohibited.’ The crowd that surrounded me, the portico of columns half hid from view, the immense size of the temple, the kaaba, or house of God, covered with black cloth from top to bottom, and surrounded with a circle of lamps or lanterns, the hour, the silence of the night, and this man speaking in a solemn tone, as if he had been inspired, all served to form an imposing picture, which will never be effaced from my memory.” Vol. ii. p. 34.

Being arrived at the house of God, they repeated a prayer, kissed the sacred black stone, brought by the angel Gabriel, and performed the first tour round the kaaba, reciting prayers. The various circumambulations, the processions between the two hills of the city, the shavings, the potations of the water of the sacred well of Zemzem, are next described. The washing and sweeping of the floor of the kaaba are afterwards mentioned. In this sublime office, the performance of which confers the highest religious honour that a mussulman can receive in this world, the sultan scheriff of Mecca was assisted by Ali Bey, who was, in consequence, proclaimed *servant of the forbidden house of God*, and received the congratulations of the multitude. But there is an officer belonging to these ceremonies, whose functions are so extraordinary and so atrocious that we must make our readers acquainted with him. This personage is the chief of the holy well of Zemzem.

"He is a young man, about twenty-two or twenty-four years of age, extremely handsome, with very fine eyes. He dresses remarkably well, and is very polished. He has an air of sweetness which is seducing, and appears to be endowed with all the qualities which render a person amiable. As he possesses the entire confidence of the seherif, he fills the most important place. His title is the poisoner. Take courage, reader, lest I should make you tremble for me. This dangerous man was known to me the first time I went to the well of Zemzem, when he made his court assiduously to me. He gave me a magnificent dinner, and sent me every day two small pitchers of the water of the miraculous well. He even watched the moments when I went to the temple, and ran, with the most winning grace and sweetness, to present me a handsome cup, filled with the same water, which I drank to the last drop; because it would have been considered a sort of crime or impiety to have refused it.

"This wretch observes the same conduct to all the pachas and important personages who come here. Upon the slightest suspicion, or the least caprice that may arise in the mind of the seherif, he orders, the other obeys, and the unhappy stranger ceases to exist. As it is reckoned impious not to accept the sacred water presented by the chief of the well, this man is arbiter of the lives of every one, and has already sacrificed many victims.

"From time immemorial the sultan scherifs of Mecca have had a poisoner at their court; and it is remarkable that they do not try to conceal it, since it is well known, in Egypt and Constantinople, that the divan has several times sent to Mecca pachas, or other persons, to be sacrificed in this manner." Vol. ii. p. 40.

Such are the crimes and sufferings to which superstition can reconcile its abject votaries!

Mount Arafat is a principal object of the pilgrim's attention. It was in that Mount, we are told, that the common father of all mankind met Eve after a long separation; and it is believed that it was Adam himself who built the chapel upon it.

"It is here that the grand spectacle of the pilgrimage of the mussulmen must be seen—an innumerable crowd of men from all nations, and of all colours, coming from the extremities of the earth, through a thousand dangers, and encountering fatigues of every description, to adore together the same God, the God of nature. The native of Circassia presents his hand in a friendly manner to the Ethiopian, or the negro of Guinea; the Indian and the Persian embrace the inhabitant of Barbary and Morocco; all looking upon each other as brothers, or individuals of the same family united by the bands of religion; and the greater part speaking or understanding more or less the same language, the language of Arabia. No, there is not any religion that presents to the senses a spectacle more simple, affecting, and majestic! philosophers of the earth! permit me, Ali Bey, to defend my religion, as you defend spiritual things from those which are material, the plenum against vacuum, and the necessary existence of the creation."

But what a misfortune, remarks this hypocrite, that with so many advantages we should not be better than the Calvinists!

The holy land, of which Mecca is the capital, is without a single river. The political situation of this country was very singular. The sultan scherif was the immediate sovereign, but the sultan of Constantinople was acknowledged there as supreme monarch. The latter sends kadis every year to Mecca, Djedda and Medina, to exercise judicial power, but they are not permitted to interfere in the government.

The eighth chapter of the 2nd volume is devoted to the history of the Wehhabites. The founder of this sect was a rigid musulman reformer, whose object was to restore Islamism to its pristine simplicity. Confining himself to the text of the Koran, he rejected all the additions of the imams and doctors of the law. He forbids devotion or veneration to the saints, or even to the person of their great prophet. The worship which was rendered to them he held to be a grievous sin in the eyes of the divinity, because it was giving companions to God. In consequence of this doctrine, his followers have demolished many of the sanctified sepulchres and chapels. They do not trouble themselves much with polemic discussions:—They argue chiefly with their sabres; and when they cannot convert an opponent they put an end to the controversy, by cutting off his head. Ali Bey thinks that their rigid principles will prove a great obstacle to the propagation of their reform; but necessity may make them relax from their intolerance;

“And the commerce of strangers may gradually convince them of the vice of an austerity that is almost against nature. By degrees their zeal will cool. Superstitious customs, which are the support, the consolation, and the hope of the weak, the ignorant, and unhappy, will resume their empire; and from that time the reform wehhabism will disappear, before its influence is consolidated, after having shed the blood of so many millions of the victims of religious fanaticism. Such is the melancholy vicissitude of human things!

On the other hand, I believe that the wehhabites, in the middle of their deserts, will always be invincible, not by their military strength, but by the nature of their country, which is uninhabitable by any other nation, and by the facility they have of hiding themselves in it, to withstand the attacks of their enemies. The latter may momentarily conquer,* Mecca, Medina, and the maritime towns; but simple isolated garrisons, in the midst of frightful deserts, could not hold out

* As the pacha of Egypt, Mehemed Ali, did last year.—Note of the Editor.

long. When a powerful enemy presented himself, the Wehhabites would hide themselves, with a view to fall suddenly upon, and to destroy him, at the moment when his troops were divided in search of food. This makes me imagine that they will never be subjected, for a long time at least, by the force of arms; and this is also the cause which has preserved Arabia, in all times, from a foreign dominion. Vol. ii. p. 129.

On the 2nd of March 1807 our traveller set out from Mecca for Djedda and thence proceeded to Jenboa. He attempted to visit Medina and the tomb of the prophet; but the Wehhabites, who had prohibited such visits as superstitious and sinful, arrested him and compelled him to return. Soon afterwards he sailed from Jenboa to Suez and returned to Cairo; where he was well received by the most distinguished persons of that city. On the 3d of July he set out for Jerusalem, where he visited the magnificent monument of Mahometan architecture called the temple, or the principal holy house in Jerusalem; which is erected on the site of Solomon's temple, and into which christians are not permitted to enter. He also visited the places distinguished as the sepulchres of David, of Abraham and the virgin, the mount of Olives, the manger of Christ at Bethlem, and Calvary. From Jerusalem he proceeded to St. Jean d'Acre, and pursuing his route through Nazareth and other celebrated places, arrived on the 22nd of August at the city of Damascus. Thence he journeyed to Aleppo, to Antioch, distinguished among the cities of the Roman empire as the queen of the east, and to Constantinople, the seat of nearly all that is left of Mahomedan splendour and greatness. The Turks in general he represents as serious and even melancholy, ignorant, and brutalized by the vices of the grossest sensuality.

“Although a mussulman myself, I must own that the Turks are still barbarians. I ask pardon of those who think differently; but when I see a nation which has not the slightest idea of public right, or of the rights of man; a nation in which hardly one individual in a thousand knows how to read and write; a nation with whom there is no guarantee for private property, and where the blood of man is ever liable to be shed for the least cause, and upon the slightest pretext, without any form of trial; in short, a nation resolved to shut its eyes to the lights of reason, and to repel far from it the torch of civilization which is presented to it in all its brilliancy, will always be to me a nation of barbarians. Let the individuals who compose it wear garments of silk, or rich pelisses; establish their own ceremonials; eat, drink, and smoke a hundred different mix-

tures daily; wash and purify themselves every hour; still I shall repeat *they are barbarians*” Vol. ii. p. 372.

And again,

“I think I may venture to conclude, that it is impossible for the Turks to civilize themselves. When mention is made in other countries of the name of the grand Seignior, men generally represent to themselves a despotic sultan; whose word is law, and who takes no other council than his own caprice. Let them undeceive themselves. There is not a greater slave in the world than the grand seignior. His steps, his movements, his words throughout the whole of the year, and in all the events of his life, are measured and determined by the code of the court. Reduced to the condition of an automaton, his actions are determined like the result of mechanical impulse, by the code, the divan, the ouléma, and the janissaries. He is covered with diamonds, intoxicated with incense, surrounded with flatterers and worshippers like the great lama, or a living divinity, but his existence differs in no way from that of a machine; and as such, he will always be viewed with the greatest indifference by people who have neither harm nor good to expect from him.” Vol. ii. p. 379–80.

We must not dismiss our traveller without noticing his opinion respecting the interior geography of Africa. The source of the Nile and the mouth of the Niger,—if they be two different rivers,—remain still the subjects of curiosity and conjecture: a great many hypotheses have been invented to explain the few facts which we have been able to ascertain; but, like all hypotheses founded upon partial discovery, they are either inconsistent in themselves or irreconcilable with each other; and, notwithstanding Ali Bey has reasoned with great probability on the subject, the physical interior of Africa is still a matter of considerable uncertainty. He is of opinion that there exists a mediterranean sea in the middle of the African continent, which, like the Caspian, has no visible communication with the ocean; and that, as all the rivers of which we have any knowledge—except such as are known to flow towards the east—run in a convergent direction towards the center:* it is probable that they meet in this great reservoir, where they are lost by evaporation and absorption. It is highly probable, that the Niger never finds its way to the

* Those of the Atlas and of the Desert from the S. and S. E.; the Niger and those of the mountains of Kong, from the N. E. and E.; the Misselad, the Kulla, besides many smaller ones from the N. W.; the Kuku, the Gazel, and some others from the S. and S. W.

ocean. That river and the Senegal have a common source in the mountains of Kong,—the one taking its direction to the north-east, and reaching Gimbala, on the borders of the Sahhara, after running 400 miles,—the other directing itself to the north-west, and after a course of about an equal distance, arriving at Faribe, on the frontiers of the same desert. Here all declivity is at an end; and the Senegal is obliged to find the ocean by a great many sinuosities;—nor does it reach the coast at last without leaving behind a numerous collection of lakes and marshes:—facts which are almost demonstrative that were there 100 miles further to go, it would never reach the place of destination,—but be lost entirely in the flat and sandy country through which it has to pass. What then shall we say of the Niger,—which at Gimbola is yet 360 miles distant from the ocean, and is obliged to work its way through a country exactly the counterpart to that of the Senegal?—The same reasoning is applicable to all the other rivers which converge towards the center of the continent;—and in short there is no way of reconciling our present knowledge of Africa with geographical analogy, but by supposing a mediterranean sea like that which we have been considering. On no other hypothesis can we account for the existence of a tract of country thirty-three and a half degrees in breadth—the longitudinal distance from the source of the Niger to that of the Musselad,—and more than twenty degrees in length from the southern declivity of Atlas and the other mountains along the Mediterranean, to the northern declivity of the mountains of Kong and the sources of the river Bahar Kulla:—from all which not one drop of water flows into the exterior seas of Africa. It cannot be denied that our traveller has at least great plausibility on his side.

But all doubts on these subjects will probably be removed by the two exploratory expeditions which were sent some time ago from England to Africa;—the one to travel through the interior to the banks of the Niger and proceed down that river as far as possible,—the other to ascend and ascertain the sources of the Zahir, or great river of Congo.

On the whole we consider this work as one of the most interesting of the class to which it belongs. It is embellished with

several plates. In the translation from the French many gross errors have been committed.

The French word *voyage*, where it means a journey by land, is rendered by the English word *voyage*, which is only applicable to a journey by sea. Nor, is it only with gallicisms we have to find fault. On some occasions the translator appears ignorant of both the languages with which the task he undertook required him to be well acquainted. The word *commentations*, which he uses (vol. 1, page 94,) instead of commentaries, is neither French nor English, nor in the sense intended, is it Latin anglicised. Such blunders are disgraceful to English literature. If they had occurred in a work originally American, what a fine subject they would have afforded for the blunt satire and clumsy jokes of the Quarterly Reviewers! Should there be a second American edition of the work, we would recommend the publisher to rebuke his brethern of London by causing these errors to be corrected.

Poems. By William Maxwell, Esq. 18mo. pp. 168. Philadelphia. M. Thomas, 1816.

THERE are some good things in this little volume of American poetry. Mr. Maxwell seems to have that ability and ease of composition which is always indicative of practice; and there is now and then a vivacity and fineness of thought in these careless effusions which, if it cannot aspire to the character of true poetry, is nevertheless a pleasurable attribute in all kinds of composition. We have not space enough to prove our assertion by voluminous extracts; but our readers will perceive our meaning from the following introduction to "The Bards of Columbia,"—which by the way is the best poem in the book:—

How often will you ask me, dearest Dwight,
When I can live at ease, why don't I write?
Let me reserve the question if you please,
Why should I write when I can live at ease?
Perhaps indeed, if I could fondly hope
To write like Dryden, or his brother Pope,
And make myself immortal by my quill;
Why yes, I might go on to scribble still.
But now to write in these prosaic times,
When few, if any, care a fig for rhymes,
And still to write what nobody will read,
No doubt a fellow must be mad indeed. pp. 29-30.



CHRONICLE.

We present to our readers a letter, lately published in England, in order that they may see the usual style in which the American nation and its government are spoken of in that country, subjoining some remarks on the charges it contains.

TO THE RIGHT HONOURABLE LORD, VISCOUNT MELVILLE.

MY LORD,

Harrow, 25th January, 1816.

BEING deeply impressed with the desire of my country's glory and prosperity, and being equally impressed with the undeniable truth, that these are so connected, so interwoven with the preponderance of her naval power, that it prompts me to continue a subject that must therefore be of the last importance to the nation. I address your lordship, because at the head of the naval administration of the country; but the subject claims the serious attention of every individual composing his majesty's government, of every man of influence, of every reflecting man in the island of Great Britain. I have already observed that it would be desirable the government should keep a watchful eye over those men to whom the nation must look as the principal guardians of her prosperity and commerce, and most minutely, that they be not seduced from their allegiance, and to rank themselves with a people notorious for the arts they have practised, the temptations they have held out, to effect this, and the impatient jealousy with which they view the naval power of Great Britain. I have no intention of adding to the breach that has been opened, nor any desire that it should not be perfectly closed up and heal-

ed; but I can in no manner perceive that it is to be done by hostile aggression on the one side, and dishonourable forbearance on the other. I can in no manner perceive that this is to be effected by the British nation tamely submitting to the seducing of her seamen from their allegiance, in the ports of the United States of America, or by suffering herself to be overborne by republican turbulence and clamour.

The impressing of American seamen out of their merchant vessels, by British men of war, has resounded, not only from one end of America to the other, but throughout Europe; but has the *infamous crimping* of British seamen, and the seducing of them from their allegiance, in harbours of the United States of America, has this been as publicly exposed? These transactions have borne such features, that even the honourable of that people have felt indignant at acts which stigmatised their moral character as a nation, and all their pretensions to rational liberty.

The following account is taken from a newspaper:—

“The Americans are using every exertion to place their navy on a formidable footing; not a vessel arrives at New York from this country, without her crew being immediately seduced into the American service. The *bounty* given to *deserters from the British naval service* is *forty dollars*; and their pay is *twelve dollars monthly*. Of the crew of the *Rolla*, consisting of sixteen prime seamen, *eight entered on board of the Java, American frigate*, the day after her arrival at New York, and the others entered on board of American merchantmen.

“Captain M'Ewen, of the *Rolla*, complained of these deserters, through the medium of Mr. Moore, the English vice-consul at New York; but, so far from obtaining redress from the American government, captain M'Ewen was fined *four hundred dollars, for unlawfully imprisoning American citizens*. It appears that the seamen belonging to the *Rolla* had been secretly *provided with certificates of American citizenship*, at the moment of quitting the vessel. Mr. Moore made every exertion to support the claims of Britain to her subjects; but the Americans set his *authority at defiance*.”

Who, my lord, can read this without indignation? Can there be any reason for doubting this circumstantial statement, coming from Liverpool, where the *Rolla* lately arrived; and, if well authenticated, was ever the government of the country more loudly called upon to interfere in behalf of the nation? Such proceedings are most hostile to the essential interests of Great Britain. If avowed by the American government, and the delinquents protected, can such transactions be viewed in any other light than acts of hostility? And what becomes of the decree of the legislature of the United States, “that no *foreign seamen* should serve on board of their vessels? and that six years' residence in their territories should be required, to give a title to citizenship?” If British seamen are to be converted in a moment into American citizens, by the arts of seduction practised by unprincipled men

in that country, shall this nation look on, in a state of apathy, at a measure of political hostility, which, if suffered to proceed to any extent, would ultimately prove pregnant with greater evil to these realms than the arms of America could have done, although leagued with the most cruel despotism that has appeared for centuries, and which has spread the fearful gloom of demoralization over the mass of the French population.

Whether it be known in America or not, it is well known in Europe, that the arms of Britain, for above twenty years, proved the firmest barrier against the universal triumphing of that despotism, and that into her arms the oppressed of the continent fled, and that to her power groaning nations became suppliants, to free their necks from the galling yoke. Is it not then shamelessly impudent in the turbulent trans-atlantic demagogues to accuse this nation of being at the head of every despotic plan in Europe? Indeed, such a perversion of truth deserves the most marked contempt, not only from every honourable mind in Europe, but also in America; by all men untainted with those false principles that have so long misled the nations from the paths of happiness and peace. Some allowance may be made for the ebullitions of those spirits, who, inflamed by the phantom of modern illumination, transplanted themselves into another soil, because that of the British isles would not yield inflammation equal to the demand of their towering imaginations; and also for the later flights of infidels from France, who, remembering the decisive and storming overthrow of Waterloo, may vent their disappointment in unjust reproaches against the nation that chiefly effected the accomplishment of an event so ardently desired by the congregations of Europe. But, after all those allowances are made, it must be grieving to every honourable mind in the old, as well as in the new continent, to perceive that this spirit is fostered in the official paper of the government of the United States, by which its spirit is manifested. It has lately sought occasions of quarrelling with Great Britain, that it might rank itself on the side of the late French government, the most fearful scourge of the nations that ever appeared, and invented accusations, the most popular of which, "the impressment of seamen," was even denied by its own subjects, who had the best opportunities of knowing how far the accusation was founded on truth. Many proofs might be adduced, during the period the American government was using every effort to inflame the minds of its subjects against this country, how it trampled upon the rights of British seamen, and even on the dictates of humanity; but I shall content myself with two in 1811, vouched by American authority, and publicly recorded in that country, by honourable men, who detested the false accusations and overbearing spirit of the demagogue faction that prevailed in their country.

"The schooner L'Ant, from Bourdeaux to the Isle of Bourbon, put into the harbour of New York. Amongst the crew were two American seamen, &c. and five British seamen, who, having

been for some years prisoners of war, escaped from the place of their confinement to Bourdeaux, where they passed for and shipped as Danes; but, their being British seamen having been discovered on the passage, when the schooner arrived at New York, *they were thrown into prison*, on the 26th of April, there to be kept, that they might be *sent back to France* in the schooner. Aware of the consequences of being taken back, the British seamen made affidavit before D. T. Blake, esq. commissioner for the Supreme court of the state of New York, of their being British seamen, and praying the protection of the British consul. They also solicited the interposition of other gentlemen, who, actuated by motives of humanity, and indignant at so *impudent an attempt* to pervert the municipal regulations of the United States to *instruments of abhorred tyranny*, interposed their exertions to prevent these unfortunate men being *taken back to France*, as intended, and finally, though with *great trouble*, procured their discharge, on the 26th of June last, they having been *two months confined*. And in three days after, Jacob Dudds, Anthony Amphine and William Berry, three of the British seamen, shipped in a vessel, supposed to be the Hercules, bound to New Orleans, and thence to Europe, having had *American protections* procured for them by a most notorious crimp, whose name and place of abode are well known; and, in four or five days after, Wm. Hunt, *alias* Michael Laughlin, and Thomas Evans, shipped in the American brig Eliza, on a voyage to Oporto, having protections provided for them by the unprincipled wretch above alluded to, and a certificate given by colonel Barclay, British consul in the district of New York, to Michael Laughlin, of his having been a prisoner in France, and effected his escape, to prevent his being treated as a deserter by any of the British men of war he might fall in with, was taken from him by the above-stated *manufacturer of American citizens*, and hawked about with every illiberal remark, as well as *indignity and contempt* that a being at once so despicable, and so dangerous to society, could offer to it, or make upon it."

Previous to this statement the writer observes, "that this is but one instance of the *many unjustifiable transactions*, of a similar nature, that *daily occur* in the city of *New York*, and of occurring there to such an *alarming extent*, what must they not be presumed to be in the cities and sea-ports of the United States collectively," &c.? Such is the testimony of an honest American; and the whole of the transactions, for tyranny, seduction and insolence, are worthy of the ally of the late French government. A *government and magistracy*, under whose eyes such scenes have been acted with approbation, or even indifference, must be seriously perverted, as to honour and morals, and transcendently presumptuous, in afterwards accusing Great Britain of exercising tyranny upon the seas, when searching for her *lawful subjects* on board of American vessels, thus tyrannically, dishonourably and hostilely

entreated and seduced from their allegiance, in aiding the views of a tyrant, who "opened not the house of his prisoners."

By an affidavit, "sworn before Charles Christian, esq. special justice of the peace for the city of New York, and certified by Mr. Robert M'Comb, clerk of the Sessions, and of Oyer and Terminer, at New York, August 1st, 1811, it appears that John Harrington, James Young, Joseph Armstrong, John Quinny and George Adamson, sailed from this port of Sunderland, in the brig Rachel, J. M'Donald master, on a voyage to New York, and thence back to Greenock; that, while at New York, they had leave to go on shore, and continued until the morning, when, returning through East George street, they were accosted by a man, calling himself David Reed, and the friend of sailors, who insisted upon treating them, and introduced a *two gallon jug of milk punch*, with which he plied them, and afterwards with more, until they were intoxicated, when he endeavoured to persuade them to go on board of a vessel in North river, and they had nothing to do but say they were *American citizens*, and *no other questions would be asked*, as he was in the *habit* of getting it done *daily*. Reed then sent for a person, with whom he agreed to receive *forty dollars* for each; and that, after receiving the 200 dollars, he procured a number of *constables*, or *persons* in that *character*, and *compelled them, by force and violence*, to go into a boat, ready to take them on board of the *President*, commodore Rodgers. When on board they were brought before him, and required to take the oath of allegiance to the United States, which they peremptorily refusing to do, he sent them on shore again, when they were *immediately arrested for the money advanced to Reed*, a small part only of which had been given them."

While on board of the *President*, they *saw* and *spoke to numbers of their countrymen*; who informed them that they had been *seduced* and *defrauded* in like manner by Reed. Now, my lord, these are indubitable facts, stated by honest Americans themselves, who admitted that numerous instances, of a similar nature, were daily transacted in their country, at the time mentioned, and which appear to be now in full exercise. Yet the ears of Europe are to be dunned, by the American government and its emissaries, with the cries of *sailors' rights* and *the freedom of the seas*.

In the cases recited it is evident what are, and what has been, the *rights of British seamen* in the ports of the United States, beset by the artifices of seduction, by infamous crimps, under the patronage of those in higher situations; their rights trampled upon in a manner which the bey of Tunis or the dey of Algiers would blush at.

If the American government were to own its want of power to correct such dishonourable transactions, such inhuman treatment, within its territories, of the subjects of a foreign power, or its *total ignorance* of such transactions, would it not acknowledge itself an imbecile and ignorant thing, altogether unfit for its situa-

tion, if it have no power to repress the hostile acts of its subjects against the rights of foreign nations, and those of their subjects.

The world knows the issue of the court martial on commodore Rodgers, for his contest with the *Little Belt*, British sloop of war, and that the evidence of *all his officers and men* (except two) affirmed that the sloop of war fired first into his *ship of the line*, carrying *thirty-two twenty-four long guns, and twenty-two thirty-two-pound carronades*, besides other cannon, making *sixty pieces*. Do you, my lord—does any man in this island—does any man in America, who is in possession of the fact, believe these affirmations? And, if they be contrary to truth, are they not a most dishonourable blot on national character? Englishmen, who were on board of the *President* at the time, *seduced*, as heretofore described, and who escaped to this country after her return into port, affirmed that the *first gun* was *fired from the President*, not designedly, but by accident, a man having incautiously entangled himself with the lanyard by which the trigger was drawn. This is also well known in America. Such evidence as that produced by *the President*, is then worthy of the Neys, the Lavalettes, and all the tribe of French atheists.

It is evident that the desire of the honourable and peaceable contained in the population of the United States of America is at variance with the demagogue faction by which the government of that country is connected. It is also evident that, while this faction countenances and abets such transactions as have been described, there can be no prospect of a lasting peace between Great Britain, and a government actuated by such a spirit; for, by sanctioning the acts of seduction of the nation described, it becomes amenable to the nation whose rights are thus invaded, and by such hostile aggression commits itself, together with the people over whom it is suffered to preside.

I pretend not to the spirit of prophesy; but I certainly believe, that the measures adopted by the American government, for some years past, its ambition in extending its already unwieldy territory, and the hostility it has breathed towards Great Britain, manifestly injurious to the best interests of its subjects, and even upon pretences denied by those subjects, who had the best opportunities of knowing the truth of its accusations;* these acts, however they be considered by the generality of mankind, are plain indications of a hastening to a dissolution of the United States. The

* The accusation of British men of war impressing American seamen from American vessels was publicly denied by the trading interest of the state of Massachusetts, who asserted that for *thirty years* they had frequented the ocean, had been visited by many British men of war, but never knew a *real American* impressed during the period.†

† In the face of this public denial of the trading interest of Massachusetts upwards of 2000 impressed American seamen were given up by the British government at the peace of 1815.—*Ed. N. C.*

seeds are already sown, and have appeared. Happy will those provinces be, who shake off a connection with men influenced by views hostile to the interests of their country; and by passions at variance with humanity, and debasing to the character of any people, much more so of those who would wish to be thought amongst men, the most just, and most peaceably inclined.

But before that vast extent of territory assumes a political appearance, differing from its present aspect, there is, to say the least, a great probability of another appeal to arms between them and the land of their progenitors. Every true son of this Island must earnestly desire that the appeal should be energetic and decisive; that our naval character be not again committed by vessels of war having to contend with those of the same *nominal rate*, though far superior in number of men and cannon, in weight of metal, and size of vessel. Of this description have been the American triumphs, shamelessly represented to the world as gained over an equal force, yet they may be justly challenged to produce *one instance*. We know, that British ships of war have triumphed over Americans, superior in equipment; and may we not hope, through the blessing of divine Providence, that, while, as a nation, we pursue the paths of honour and justice, we shall always have the inclination and ability of giving the false detractors of our arms, practical lessons that will refute their calumnies.

No friend to humanity and peace can have any desire to witness a renewal of hostilities between the two countries; but if the insulted honour of the British nation should be compelled to demand reparation, by a continued system of those acts that have been mentioned, as the government of this country is now well acquainted with the nature of the *force* the British navy will have to contend with, must it not be considered a most imperative duty to prepare for the probable event, that must prove highly important to this country, as the eyes of Europe would be intensely fixed to behold the issue of an event, which has hitherto appeared covered with doubt? And how, my lord, is Britain to make preparation? by suffering her *prime seamen* to man American ships of war? Can there be a more decisive proof of the opinion of Americans themselves (notwithstanding their boasting) respecting these men, than the arts they have and do practise to seduce them into their ships of war? Either the Americans are averse themselves to enter, or British seamen are preferred for the purpose of war. Whichever be the case, Britain must be in a state of fatal insensibility, calmly to suffer the most valuable of her sons to be placed in a situation where they may lift up their hands in rebellion against her, and add to the martial reputation of her enemies.

Should ever the dire necessity occur again, the American coast ought to be invested by *twenty or thirty thousand chosen men*, in vessels and ships of war, every way adequate to meet an enemy of the same descriptive force; while the Canadian lakes are also furnished with armaments in no manner inferior to their adversa-

ries. There are other important considerations connected with war between Great Britain and the United States of America; but, for weighty reasons, they ought not to be promulgated.

If the American government be, indeed, pacifically inclined, it must be anxious to prove this, by discountenancing and punishing every act of seducing British seamen from their allegiance. It must be anxious to prove that its own decree of not permitting *foreigners to serve on board of the ships of the United States*, is not a mere nullity; and that of *six years' residence* only entitling to the rights of citizenship, is a substantial truth, and not a mere appearance on paper.

I do not know what modern reasoners may call such arts as have been mentioned, who fritter away the substance of justice by sophisticated arguments; but I am certain what the common sense of any nation would call it, when practised against itself; and to this the impartial of all nations will agree.

I had written thus far, when I read the president's message to congress; but it has in no manner altered my opinions, save with respect to the employing of British seamen in the marine of the United States; if indeed it be in earnest.

You are well aware, my lord, that there are cogent reasons which demand of the American government to preserve peace with this country; at least for the present. It has experienced, that the finances of that growing empire are in no manner calculated to contend with those of a nation long established, that has stood the severest trials, and that, for a quarter of a century, has made exertions which, in a quarter of the time, would have drained the United States of America, not only of the last dollar in specie, but also of the last *dollar of credit*.

The American government has *experienced* the *foolish temerity* of exposing the vast extent of its sea coast to the attacks and occupation of a people it had wantonly made an enemy; where their flag flew triumphant, and their arms penetrated to the seat of government; while the only consolation it had to boast of, was seven or eight victories, by vessels that had *stolen out of its harbours* during night, or thick stormy weather, over those, in every respect greatly inferior; but which it did not hesitate to pronounce of equal force. When *three* becomes equal to *four and a half*, then, and not till then, will this assertion be true.

The American government has at present no hope of an ally on the continent of Europe, that could in a great degree interpose, so as to prevent the weight of Britain's strength pressing upon its coast; alarming the population; fatiguing and thinning the military ranks; drying up the sources of prosperity; and spreading the fearful gloom of national bankruptcy.

The sober and temperate part of the population of the United States of America is well convinced, that instead of Great Britain being the fomentor of war among the nations, the lawless invader of their rights, the despotic shrine of power, as represented by

the late unprincipled governments of France, their unprincipled agents, and the unprincipled demagogues and writers in America, that she has been the scrupulous observer of treaties, the respecter of the rights of nations,* that she has sympathized with those who were groaning under the yoke of the oppressor; that her arms and her purse were employed for their deliverance;† That, although threatened with the fiery vengeance of a mighty and inveterate enemy, who had triumphed over the arms of all the nations on the continent of Europe, she resolutely and magnanimously disdained to sacrifice at the shrine of his ambition, her honour or her rights, and set the example to the astonished nations, what a people can do, who hold their faith inviolate as their existence; who, while contending against a powerful enemy for their own existence, extended the helping hand to the distressed, consolation to the afflicted nations; and although hourly pressed by demands of long and extended war, she withheld not her offerings from the altars of the most high God,‡ who has crowned her with honour before the eyes of the first of the nations, however she may be falsely vilified by faithless and ungrateful governments, by the unprincipled insinuations of concealed ambition and envy, and the proud ravings of self-conceit. Let but the government of the United States possess the same spirit as that of Great Britain has done, for the last twenty years, amidst the severest trials, for *good faith*; for *humanity*; for *generous forbearance*, for unparalleled efforts in the *real cause of freedom*; and then there will be no fear of any serious dispute arising between the two countries.

The reflecting and impartial part of the population of the United States know, that before their country can *seriously* contend with Great Britain upon the ocean, she must be able to raise annually a surplus revenue, such as would at present engulf her in national bankruptcy in the course of a few years; and that they have been but badly recompensed, by the victories already mentioned, for the evils inflicted upon their country, provoked by the hostile spirit and unjustifiable pretences of their government, to claim to itself *the right of seducing and arming the subjects of a foreign nation against their own country*, and threatening retaliation if these *rebels* should be treated according to the *acknowledged law of all nations*. They are sensible that the government of their country has not discovered such wisdom as should induce the ancient nations of Europe to bow to its dictates; nor power, to support pretensions striking at the roots of all established and legal authorities;

* Vide—Copenhagen—the East-Indies—and the United States.

† Vide—The support afforded Ferdinand of Spain—and the revival of all old abuses in that country, in Sicily, Naples and France.

‡ Vide—Robbing the church of St. Inigoes at St. Mary's river—and supporting the temple of Juggernaut.

and that it would be more beneficial for different states to withdraw from the union, than expose themselves to ruin, by making such extravagant and lawless pretences, to which the honor and independence of no nation would submit, much less one who had the ability of visiting such insults with the rod of effective chastisement.

Whatever may be the temper of the government of that country, for the weighty reasons enumerated, justice and moderation must be its surest path to the honourable respect of other nations, and the affection of the most worthy of its subjects; and might, for a longer period than a different spirit can premise, prolong its existence. To suppose that such a government is suited to rule its present extent of territory, when the different states feel the vigour of maturity, is to suppose that the vigour of manhood is to be restrained like the desires of the puling infant. It would be to argue against the experience of manhood from the remotest ages. If, indeed, a general spirit of peace and benevolence, of integrity and moral rectitude, were to arise over that land, so far removed from the seat of political storms that agitate Europe, and from which it might always keep itself clear, by the exercise of justice and prudent forbearance; then indeed it might become the Eden of the world; the happy seat of freedom and peace; having no neighbour to fear, and envying not the prosperity of any. Then would its inhabitants, instead of looking across the Atlantic with the eyes of malignity and insatiable avarice, hail the land of their great progenitors with hearts exulting in their immortal deeds; and feel the rays emanating from the never-fading sun of their glory, warming their own soul; and instead of entertaining a proud spirit, that sought to tarnish their well-earned renown, would breathe towards its shores, desires of peace, and fond remembrance of their origin. However desirable this might be, it is well known, my lord, that it does not at present exist; and the cupidity of traders from that continent is known from *Havre de Grace* to *Canton*. The hostility it has with little reason breathed towards this country, is notorious. To be then prepared for the worst event must be wise, while the country gives *no just cause* of offence to other nations, with dignified and firm demeanour, to maintain her invaluable rights inseperable from her independence.

I am, my lord,

Your most humble servant,

ARION.

Remarks on the preceding letter to lord Melville.

THE charge of "seducing" British seamen from their allegiance, has so frequently been urged against the government and people of the United States, by critics, journalists, editors, and statesmen, at home and abroad, that it seems worthy of examination. Those, who are acquainted with the relative state of the United States and England, and know the inducements held out by the superior advantages of the former, will be inclined to suspect that the British sailor requires no very seducing arguments to exchange one service for the other. They will suppose rather, what is probably the fact, that this charge of seduction has been invented, as a sort of offset to the forcible impressment and detention of American seamen, so long a subject of complaint and remonstrance on the part of our government. But even if the fact of this curious "seduction" of men who are known to desert from the service of their country whenever they have a desperate chance of escape, be true, a moment's consideration will show, that the two cases are entirely different in their nature: impressment is an act of force; seduction one of persuasion. The victim of impressment is not responsible for what he could not prevent; the man who is tempted from the path of duty, is justly responsible for the penalty of his crime. The one *could* not, the other *would* not resist; and therefore cannot relieve himself from the imputation of moral turpitude, by charging his transgression on the head of the tempter.

The instances adduced by the writer of the foregoing letter to lord Melville, in support of his charge of seduction, are at best but of doubtful authority. Newspapers are not gospel; and we know that there *have* been editors in this country notoriously devoted to the cause of England, who would not hesitate to distort facts, or invent falsehoods to further the ends of that government. We know also that England has more than once made use of the falsehoods so invented as a pretext for retaliatory measures, justifiable on no other ground than that of retaliation. It is known also that she had agents in this country expressly deputed to furnish excuses for acts of unjustifiable severity—and it is also known that many of the resolutions of mercantile, and legislative bodies,

operated upon as they frequently were by personal feelings, or labouring under the paroxysms of a political fever, were sometimes erroneous in their assertions, and not unfrequently erroneous in the conclusions drawn from facts thus assumed.

Such as these authorities are, we will shortly examine them. The first case is that of the schooner *Rolla*, quoted from "a newspaper," says the writer of the letter. If he had mentioned what newspaper, we should have been better enabled to judge of the credit due to its authority. From the blinded stupidity, and petty art so conspicuous in the paragraph, we think we could point out the paper; but it is scarcely worth while, and we will proceed to examine its most material assertions.

The first is that "*the bounty given to deserters from the British Naval service is forty dollars; and their pay twelve dollars monthly.*" This assertion is one further proof of the matchless dexterity with which some men can keep the word of truth, as the witches in *Macbeth* kept the word of promise "to the ear," and "broke it to the sense." The evident intention of the writer of this paragraph is to make his readers believe, that the bounty of forty dollars, and the additional twelve dollars per month, was a peculiar douceur offered exclusively to the British sailor to induce him to desert. The fact is however that these were then the terms on which all sailors entered into our service; and though it is perfectly true that a British seaman naturalized, according to our laws, would receive this bounty and pay, the insinuation of the writer, that they were exclusively appropriated as a temptation to "British deserters," is a mean and pitiful attempt to erect a falsehood on the basis of truth.

The next assertion respecting the crew of the *Rolla* is that "*the captain, through the medium of Mr. Moore, the English vice consul, complained of these deserters, but so far from obtaining any redress, from the American government captain M. Ewen was fined four hundred dollars, for unlawfully imprisoning American citizens.*" "*Mr. Moore,*" continues the newspaper, "*made every exertion to support the claims of Britain to her subjects; but the Americans SET THIS AUTHORITY AT DEFIANCE!*" Terrible! that the municipality of New-York, should thus impiously set at nought

the authority of the British vice consul! Why, this is "flat rebellion!"

The plain English of all this is, that the crew of the *Rolla* deserted, as British sailors are in the habit of doing—that captain M'Ewen forcibly seized and detained them—that the court on examination finding that they had entitled themselves to the privilege of American citizens in the manner prescribed by law, not merely to British seamen, but to all classes of emigrants, fined captain M'Ewen for a breach of the laws, in forcibly detaining men against their will. This is all that can be inferred from the facts, admitting them to be true. Yet this is one of the proofs of "seduction."

The next proof is that of *L'Ant*, which the writer of this curious epistle says is "*vouched by American authority.*" This is not the first, second, or third time, that "*American authority,*" as it is called, has been brought forward by English writers, to sanction the worst charges against the United States, and shame to the men, who have thus lent themselves as false witnesses, not against strangers and enemies, but countrymen and friends. We wish the writer had been more particular in citing his authority, that the people of America might know the backslider. This case is marked with stronger features of folly, absurdity and contradiction, than the other. The whole of it rests on the affidavits of the British sailors, who being released upon these affidavits, "three days afterwards," says the American authority, shipped on board American vessels, with "*American protections.*" To gain these protections at the custom-house, they must have made oaths to certain facts which were in direct contradiction to the affidavit on which they were finally released. Yet the writer of the paragraph relies on that affidavit entirely for his statement of facts! What credit is due to such perjured miscreants, or what extraordinary means of "seduction" are necessary to induce such wretches to desert their flag!

The third proof brought forward in support of the charge of "seduction," is another affidavit of some of these precious victims of the arts of these wicked Americans. These gentry, it seems, were "seduced" by "two gallons of milk-punch," given them by one Reed. They were only to "say" that they were Ame-

ican citizens, when they got on board the President frigate, and nothing further would be required of them. Finding, however, on their arrival that "the oath of allegiance to the United States" was a preliminary, these conscientious rogues, who, though they had no objection to tell a lie, were too moral to swear to it, refused and were *sent on shore*, and obliged to return their advance money, or go to prison—as is usual in all cases of this kind.

"While on board the President," continues the *American authority*, "*they saw and spoke to numbers of their countrymen, who informed them that they had been seduced and defrauded in like manner.*" What miserable absurdity is this! In the very same article a number of British "seduced" sailors are suffered to go on shore on refusing the oath of allegiance, while a number of others "seduced and defrauded," are forcibly detained. Such inconsistencies as these are sufficient to destroy the credibility of any statement. But when one considers that the affidavit brought forward in this case, rests solely on the testimony of men who could not withstand the slightest temptation, but yielded to the "seductive" charms of "two gallons of milk-punch," nothing but impenetrable ignorance or unconquerable prejudice, we think, can resist the conviction that the whole may be traced to the second "seduction" of these innocent novices, who were probably bribed a second time, by "two gallons of milk-punch" to tell such a story as might suit the purposes of party, or save their necks when they were sent to England. Pending the late war, whenever a deserter was caught by the British, he had only to make oath to his "seduction," and state some of the horrors of an American ship of war, to insure his pardon.

The remarks we have made on these several proofs brought forward to sustain the charge of "the seduction" of British seamen, are probably sufficient to show its total want of foundation. They are so weak, so inconsistent, so absurd, and contradictory, or they are marked with such distinct characters of falsehood, and false colouring, that no credit can possibly be given to them but by those who are disposed to acquiesce in every thing disadvantageous to the American name. But in cases where circumstances are so liable to be distorted, truth will be most certainly discovered by resorting to more general reasoning. Facts may be invented or misre-

presented—the hope of gain, or the fear of punishment may operate upon human hopes and fears, so as to impel the wretched being to fly in the face of the Deity, and outrage the purity of its nature by falsifying the truth, under the sanction of his name. In the conflict of national antipathies—in the shock of individual rivalry—in the war of opposing interests, prejudices, passions and animosities, the means of recrimination, and the instruments of revenge are sought for, too often with little regard to any other object than gratifying those turbulent, and monopolizing feelings. In such cases, he who is anxious for truth, will not resort to sources so questionable, and so impure. When testimony is produced resting on the authority of persons, who by their own acknowledgment are unworthy of belief; or when it is rendered doubtful by other authority, equally worthy of belief; all that is then left to the mind, is to inquire into the general circumstances that render the testimony of one or the other probable or improbable, and decide accordingly.

We will now, therefore, proceed to inquire, first, into the probability of the fact that the Americans are in the habit of “seducing” the British sailors (poor innocent creatures!) from the service of their country and king; secondly, the probability of the fact that British sailors require any “seduction” to entrap them into the service of the United States. These probabilities depend on the motives operating on either, and these motives obviously depend on the relative situation of the parties. If, in the inquiry, it should be found that motives universally operative induce the British sailor to prefer the service of one party to that of the other—if the two great blessings, most universal in their estimation, freedom and plenty, are more easy in their attainment in the United States than in England, we will seek no further for the real causes that produce the phenomenon. The imputation of “seduction” will excite the contempt it deserves, and the real source of this deplorable undermining of British power be found in the actual superiority of this country, in affording to the labourer, of every class and degree, the means of plenty and happiness, and in the degree of personal freedom which the sailor most especially enjoys.

In England, the seaman on board a man of war is actually a

slave—on board a merchant ship, he is continually under the apprehension of being made one. The conscription of Bonaparte and the impressment of George are pretty much the same thing; and doubtless an English sailor, notwithstanding his enormous patriotism, has as great an objection to being impressed as the soldier of Napoleon had to being included in the conscription. The latter, indeed, was rather better off, for the period of his service was limited, and he was solaced by a succession of triumphs, while, on the contrary, there is no limit to the term of impressment, and of late the poor English sailor has had very few victories to boast of, except he was “seduced” to serve on board of one of the American frigates. On the other hand, the sailor of the United States serves only of his own free will, and for the period he has voluntarily prescribed to himself. The marked distinction arising from this circumstance is most strikingly exemplified in the contrast between the conduct of the American and British seamen, in every situation. The former never, on any occasion, during the whole of the late war, refused to volunteer for every service proposed to them. At the commencement of that war every commandant of a ship of war offered to his men the alternative of remaining on board or going on shore. In no instance were there more than one or two who chose the latter; and these were renegado Englishmen, who had made oath, previous to their admission, that they were citizens of the United States. On the other hand, how stands it with the British sailors? “Seduced” by the very sight of our shores, they desert to them whenever they have an opportunity; and there is not a British ship of war that can venture into any of our ports, without losing many men, notwithstanding the most unremitting vigilance. The crew of one of the British frigates mutinied, off New London, and a seventy-four was obliged to be moored alongside her, with guns pointed, in order to reduce them to obedience. The crew of the *Plantagenet* were more than one half in irons when the frigate *President* offered her battle, off Sandy Hook, as the captain of the *Plantagenet* proved, in the court of inquiry, held at Bermuda, to ascertain the cause of his declining the action. A hundred other instances might be given to establish the disaffection which is so prevalent among British sailors; and, if any proof of their total and universal dis-

inclination to the service is wanting, it will be found in a case of recent occurrence. The other day, when lord Exmouth, one of the most distinguished British naval officers of the present day, addressed his fleet, for the purpose of inducing the sailors to volunteer against Algiers, not a man—not a single man volunteered! Do such sailors require “seduction” to induce them to desert?

In the ships of war of the United States the seaman serves voluntarily; in the merchant ships he receives higher wages, and is not so much exposed to impressment. In the ships of war of the United States, a mutual confidence and good will subsists, on the part of the officers and men: the former feel secure in the fidelity of the latter, because they voluntarily choose their situation; while the sailor looks to his officer with complacency, because he freely subjected himself to his command. The officer lies down at night, free from the apprehension of mutiny; the sailor goes to rest, exempt from the anticipation of perpetual slavery. On the other hand, the sailors on board a British ship of war see in the officers but the leaders of a pressgang, the gaolers that watch the outlets of their loathsome prison, the tyrants that stand between them and liberty. The officers cannot even trust the men with arms, at night, for fear they should make use of them, not against the enemy, but themselves. In the face of these facts, and the conclusions inevitably resulting from them, the idea of an English sailor being “seduced” into our service is equivalent to that of a man seduced from hopeless imprisonment to perfect liberty—from misery and despair to the enjoyment of peace, plenty and happiness. What is it that makes the English, Scots and Irish manufacturer and labourer, of every class, look to this country as a refuge? What is it that draws the Swiss, the German, from his various circles to the bosom of this country? What makes the persecuted patriot, the exiled general, the dethroned monarch, throw themselves into this noble republic? Why is it that, from every corner of this abused and suffering earth, however near or however distant, the impoverished and down-trodden victim of authority traverses half the globe, to reach at last this LAND OF THE EXILE? Are *they*, too, “seduced” from their country and accustomed home, by “a couple of gallons of milk punch,” or a bounty of forty dollars, and twelve dollars a month? No: they come with a conviction that, of all the countries of the

earth, *this* furnishes the asylum where the victim of legitimate vengeance will not be surrendered to his persecutors—where the exiled patriot can solace himself for his disappointment at home, in contemplating the successful exertions of others in the attainment of happiness, and where the industrious mechanic and labourer is sure to enjoy the free fruition of his labours. The vulgar pride of upstart wealth, the bloated vanity of hereditary rank, covering its own insignificance by the merits of its ancestry, may sigh for other countries, more favourable to the enjoyment of these ignoble distinctions, but it is here that the great class of mankind, those who create the enjoyments of the rich, without whose aid wealth and power would never have existed, and, destitute of whose support, they cannot sustain themselves—*these* will long be “seduced” into our country, by the irresistible allurements of freedom, plenty and happiness.

It has ever been, and, it is hoped, ever will be the policy of the United States to afford, under proper regulations, a participation of their rights to emigrants, from all parts of the world, and to permit their own citizens to go where they please. Our government, it is presumed, will never shut its doors against the coming of the one or the going of the other, and desires no citizens but such as come or stay voluntarily. If they cannot live happily here, they are at liberty to go whither they please; the world is before them, and, if they can find a place where human rights are better secured, or human happiness more widely diffused, there let them pitch their tents. That country must be in a miserable state where the exercise of authority is requisite to prevent the desertion of its people; and that country, we think, must be ill governed where such restraints are laid on the freedom of mankind, in their pursuit of happiness. It is the misfortune of England to afford this example, and it is the fault of her advocates that, while they cannot deny the fact of desertion, they ascribe it to causes that have no existence. If, instead of looking to “seduction,” they were to contemplate the natural and political advantages held out by the United States of America to every class of people but one, they would behold in these, and these alone, sufficient cause to produce the phenomenon. These, and these alone, are the “temptations” and “seductions” practised by the Americans; it is these that tempt landmen from the fields

which they sow, but do not reap, and "seduce" the seamen from their ships, without any effort on the part of the people or government of the United States, who merely fulfil the dictates of national and individual hospitality, by affording them the offices of good neighbourhood, and the shield of protection.

Our intention, in this essay, was principally directed to that part of the preceding letter to lord Melville relating to the "seduction" of British seamen. Exceptionable, pert, insolent and unfounded as are many other parts of the letter, it would be only fatiguing ourselves and our readers to enter into their examination. Most, indeed all of them have been separately refuted, over and over again, either by argument, or more effectually by the course of political events. The story of French influence is no more—the "emancipation of nations" is now pretty well understood, and the piety of England appears in all its real lustre. While corruption, like a burning stream of lava, is rolling through the streets of her cities—while every day men of the highest rank are appealing to the laws, to punish the adultery of women of the highest distinction, and the newspapers and the annual registers are filled with details of crimes that mark the extreme of moral turpitude, she is endeavouring to impose a character of exalted piety on the world, by sending missionaries to India and Africa, as if there was not enough wretches at home to give employment to all her apostles. Aware of the overwhelming influence now exercised by public opinion, in this reading age, all the ingenuity of sophistry and hypocrisy is employed to secure the good will of the honest and well meaning, who, let people say what they will, we believe, always constitute the majority of mankind. If they do not, on what foundation rest the laws of every country, and the rights of every people? Who is to enforce the one, and protect the other, if the majority are opposed to them? And opposed they certainly will be, since it is the nature of bad men to hate laws and disregard the rights of others.

In pursuance of this plan, and knowing full well the influence of religion on the human mind, which we do not hesitate to say, in answer to the calumnies so often uttered against mankind, is universal, since all nations cherish religion, in proportion as Heaven has vouchsafed to enlighten them:—Aware of this, England has erected herself as the sole patentee and patroness of re-

ligion. The immodest and ostentatious manner in which she attempts to sustain this character is disgusting in the extreme. The name of the Deity, which ought never to be mentioned without reverence, is now foisted into every inquiry by a certain class of writers. It is coupled with all the views of ambition, avarice and hypocrisy: under its sanction the character of other nations is assailed with the most unblushing scurrility; they are charged with being unprincipled, unbelieving and immoral, because they stand in the way of some ministerial project, or oppose some favourite plan of political aggrandizement. The hollow-hearted Pharisee, praying at the corners of the streets, that all might hear him, was but a type of that nation, which carries the bible in one hand, the sword in the other—sends missionaries to convert the Bramins, and armies to exterminate the Nepaulese—builds churches at home, and repairs heathen temples abroad*—which exemplifies its love of faith, by imposing on the belief of others, and exercises its charity, in impeaching the motives, and slandering the character of all the rest of mankind.

FOR THE AMERICAN NAVAL CHRONICLE.

TO THE YOUNG OFFICERS OF THE AMERICAN NAVY.

YOUNG GENTLEMEN,

PERMIT an old and sincere friend to the honour and prosperity of the navy to offer you a few plain rules for your government, either on ship board or on shore. Much of the prosperity of young men, and particularly of young officers, depends on their deportment, not only while on duty, but on shore, where they are especially called upon to support their characters as gentlemen. The following rules, it is believed, will attain both these ends.

When you are appointed a midshipman, you are immediately to consider yourself a man, and, for this purpose, you are never to be seen reading, or engaged in any branch of knowledge whatever, as this would derogate from the dignity of your character. You are especially to take every possible pains to learn to chew tobacco, and, that people may know you are master of this indis-

* Juggernaut.

pensible accomplishment, you will take special care to spit in the most conspicuous manner.

N. B. The sooner you get a black eye, and a huge pair of whiskers, the better.

When on shore, take every opportunity of *kicking up a row*, and don't be ashamed of being clapt in the watch house, as this shows a most unofficer-like modesty, and brings your courage into question.

Always wear your hat on one side, in a knowing style; and, while on shore, be sure to take lodgings in the most conspicuous tavern, where you can stand on the steps, and stare modest women out of countenance, or tip those of another class a knowing wink, that every body may see you are acquainted with them.

N. B. If you were now and then to be seen in the third row of the theatre, it would go a great way to make you pass for a man.

Whenever you are in a public place, be sure to make as much noise as you can, and break as many rules of decorum as possible, for this will cause people to take proper notice of you.

Never employ the time of your furlough in going to school, because this will lessen the dignity of your station; and it is better to be ignorant than pass for a boy.

Take every opportunity to d—n your eyes and limbs; for this will make you pass for an experienced seaman.

Never blush; for this will infallibly ruin your character as a knowing lad, who has seen the world, kept his watch, boxed the compass, and crossed the line.

Always endeavour to get in debt to the purser at sea, and the landlord on shore, more than you can pay: never pay any debts but those you cannot help; and always get on shore, to spend money, in preference to staying on board, to save it, as this will show a manly spirit.

When you are on duty, on board the ship, in order to get the reputation of a good disciplinarian, you must use the seamen like dogs: never give them a good word, or look pleased with any thing they do; for this only spoils them, and makes them saucy and inattentive.

Always appear busy about nothing--bustle around the ship, and, if you find a sailor comfortably seated any where, rouse him

up, blast his limbs, and set him to work about any thing, no matter whether necessary or not.

Make it a point to have a spite against some one of the crew, in order that you may have somebody to vent your spleen upon. Keep a sharp look out—make him work twice as much as any body else, and reward him by finding fault with every thing he does. Be sure to stand over him, and d—n his eyes for doing a thing wrong, before he has done it at all. By this means you will confuse the poor fellow until he really blunders; and then you have a fair opportunity, if not of giving him the rope's end, at least of administering a sly pinch or two.

Never take much pains to learn your duty as a lieutenant, because, if you are set to hold a watch at night, and dont know how, you can always plead sickness, and get excused. I have known young gentlemen dispose of a whole cruise in this way.

Keep out of the way of service as much as you can, until your turn comes for promotion; then come out, and make a great noise, if you are passed over. I have known several succeed in this way, in making people believe they were treated with most crying injustice.

If you happen to get married, decline every service but that of the home department, until you are tired of your wife; and then demand of the secretary of the navy that some other officer, who has stuck to his duty, be displaced, to make room for you. If your request is not complied with, charge that officer with partiality, or being under undue influence.

Dont hesitate, when it suits your feelings, your views, or your caprice, to abuse any of the old officers of the navy, or find fault with their modes of sailing, governing or fighting their ships. This will give people an idea of your skill, show them how much more you know than they do, and convince them how they have been deceived in their estimation of those men.

N. B. Never hazard an opinion—let every thing be assertion; and, if people take offence at it, let them chew the cud, or fight.

These are the principal rules necessary to constitute an accomplished officer; and I trust that they will be carefully perused, and properly appreciated, by all our young officers, who cannot fail of deriving benefit from the experience of an

OLD LIEUTENANT.

EXTRACTS.

A Journal of Science and the Arts. Nos. I. and II. Edited at the Royal Institution of Great Britain. Published Quarterly. London: John Murray, 1816. 8vo. pp. 328.

WE announced this publication in the *Analectic Magazine* for July; but as the second number is much better than the first, we think our readers can have no objection to being introduced to it again. From the auspices under which it appears,—emanating as it does from the Royal Institution—and from the persons who have engaged to supply its pages; consisting not only of the most active persons belonging to that Institution (such as Sir H. Davy, Mr. Thomas Brande, &c.) but of various literary and scientific gentlemen in different parts of the British empire, the *Quarterly Journal* promises to be one of the first periodical works of the present day. No expense is spared in composing its contents; and accordingly, all accounts of new inventions, or new modifications of old ones,—every article, in short, which requires illustrative diagrams is accompanied with an appropriate plate. As this great expensiveness, with the additional consideration that, to the bulk of American readers, the whole of its pages would not be very interesting, will doubtless prevent its total republication in this country, we shall, in future, extract such articles as we think will be of practical utility in our own domestic economy, accompanying them with all the plates and diagrams which we find in the original, or which their illustration requires. For this number we present our readers with a paper and plate relative to a new invented gasometer, which, as they will perceive, is intended to remedy, and does actually remedy, all the defects of the common apparatus, in regulating the admission and escape of gas. It was invented with a particular reference to the illumination of streets and public buildings, by means of carburetted gas; and as some of our large cities have already undertaken to illumine their streets in this manner—an example which, ere long we hope, they will all imi-

tate—a description of the apparatus employed for the same purpose in England cannot fail of being subservient to the consummation of their labours. The substitution of gas for oil in lighting streets—like every other new invention which is calculated to abridge the occupation of a certain class of labourers—will unquestionably be obliged to encounter much opposition in its progress; but we believe it will eventually succeed. The history of this police regulation is somewhat curious; and we think an extract from an article on the subject of inventions, in the XXVIIIth number of the Quarterly Review, will be a useful preface to the paper we are going to subjoin.

“*Lighting the Streets.*—This was a police regulation unknown to the Romans. In returning from their nocturnal feasts their slaves carried before them torches or lanterns. Public illuminations, on particular occasions, are, however, very ancient: Egypt and Greece had them. Rome, according to Suetonius, was lighted up on the occasion of some games, exhibited by order of Caligula. The Jews lighted up the holy city for eight days, at the feast of the dedication of the temple, and Constantine ordered Constantinople to be illuminated on Easter eve.

“It would appear, from some passages in the fathers of the Greek church, that Antioch was permanently lighted in the fourth century, and Edessa, in Syria, in the fifth, and that the lamps were suspended, as they now are in Paris, from ropes stretched across the street. Paris was not lighted until the early part of the sixteenth century. In 1524 a mandate was issued for the inhabitants whose houses fronted the streets to hang out candles, after nine in the evening, to prevent incendiaries and street robbers. In 1555 large vases, filled with pitch, rosin, and other combustibles, called *falots*, were placed at the corners of the streets. In 1662 an Italian abbé, of the name of Laudati, obtained an exclusive privilege, for twenty years, to let out torches and lanterns for hire. For this purpose he erected booths in every part of Paris, and had men and boys in waiting at each, ready to attend either foot passengers or carriages. Five years after this the whole city was lighted as it now is.

“The citizens of London, as Maitland says, were ordered, in 1414, to hang out lanterns, to light the streets; and sir Henry Burton, according to Stowe, ordered, in 1417, ‘lanterns with lights to be hanged out, in the winter evenings, betwixt Hallowtide and Candlemasse;’ and for 300 years afterwards the citizens of London were, from time to time, reminded, on pains and penalties, to hang out their lanterns at the accustomed time. In 1736 an application was made to parliament to increase the lamps from 1000 to 5000; and in 1741, on account of the number of robberies, an

act passed for completely lighting the cities of London and Westminster.

"In 1553, at the Hague, lights were ordered to be placed before the doors, on dark nights; and in 1678 lamps were placed in all the streets. In 1669 Amsterdam was lighted with horn lanterns. Hamburgh was lighted in 1674. In 1679 every third house in Berlin was to show a light; and in 1682 it was lighted, but very badly, as it still is, at the public expense. Hanover was lighted in 1696; but Dresden, Leipzig, Cassel, Halle, Gottingen, Brunswick, Zurich, and some other German towns, not till the eighteenth century. Venice, Messina and Palermo are all lighted; so are Madrid, Valencia and Barcelona; but Lisbon is still in the dark, as is Rome. Sextus V. made an attempt to have the streets lighted; but the most he could accomplish was to increase the number of lamps placed before the images of the saints."

"Mr. Murdoch (says the *Ecclectic Review* of Accum's *Treatise on Gas Lights*) seems entitled to the credit of being the first to bring the new mode of applying coal gas to the purpose of illumination into practice, and Mr. Samuel Clëgg, of Manchester, has the principal merit, as it regards the construction and application of the requisite machinery." Mr. Ackerman has calculated that, while the old method of illuminating his printing office cost him no less than 160*l.* per annum, the expense by the new system is only 40*l.* per annum, or only about one fourth as great as the former.

"Such (adds Mr. Ackerman) is the simple statement of my present system of lighting, the brilliancy of which, when contrasted with our former lights, bears the same comparison to them as a bright summer sunshine does to a murky November day: nor are we, as formerly, suffocated with the effluvia of charcoal, nor the fumes of candles and lamps. In addition to this, the damage sustained by the spilling of oil and tallow upon prints, drawing books and papers, &c. amounted annually to upwards of 50*l.* All the workmen employed in my establishment consider the gas lights as the greatest blessing, and I have only to add that the light we now enjoy, were it to be produced by means of Argand's lamps, or candles, would cost at least 350*l.* per annum.

"With regard to the apparatus and machinery employed for the production and use of the gas, we cannot of course be expected to give in this place any description: indeed such description would be altogether unintelligible without the assistance of plates. Suffice it to say that the coal is introduced into iron cylinders, called retorts, which being made air-tight, and placed upon the fire, the gaseous products are made to ascend, together with other productions, in the form of liquid. These last are conveyed into proper receptacles, while the gaseous matter is conducted by pipes into places for purification; and then, thus purified, made to pass into the several conduits for use. The products of coal, treat-

ed in this manner, are, beside the gas in question, coke, coal tar, and an ammoniacal fluid, all of which are materials of much value and use, and, as we have seen by Mr. Ackerman's statement, cause a very considerable deduction of the required expenditure in the production of the gas."

Mr. Accum thus answers the arguments against gas lights which is drawn from the *danger* of using them.

"In fact (he says) no danger can arise from the application of gas lights, in any way, but what is common to candle-light and lamps of all kinds, and is the fault of none of them. Even in this case the gas lights are less hazardous. There is no risk of those accidents which often happen from the guttering or burning down of candles, or from carelessly snuffing them. The gas-light lamps and burners must necessarily be fixed to one place; and therefore cannot fall, or otherwise become deranged, without being immediately extinguished. Besides, the gas-light flames emit no sparks, nor are any embers detached from them. As a proof of the comparative safety of the gas lights, it need only be stated that the fire offices engage themselves to insure cotton mills, and other public works, at a less premium, where gas lights are used, than in the case of any other lights."

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Some account of Mr. Samuel Clegg's improvements of the Apparatus employed in Gas Illumination. By William Thomas Brande, esq. F. R. S. and E. Prof. Chem. R. I.

(From the *Quarterly Journal of Sciences and the Arts.*)

In the last number of this journal I have detailed such facts as I conceived might be generally useful, respecting the application of coal gas to the purposes of illumination. On the present occasion I am enabled, by the kindness of Mr. Clegg, to describe some new apparatus, and several important improvements which he has successfully adopted at the large establishment at Westminster, belonging to the Gas Light Company.

Since I wrote my former paper upon this subject I have had the superintendence of the construction of a gas apparatus, which the Apothecaries' Company have erected at their hall, near Blackfriars bridge, and by which their different laboratories and warehouses, as well as the exterior of the building, are now exclusively lighted. I have here learned several facts connected with the production and management of the gas, which are new to me and which, if verified by future experiments, will be detailed in this journal.

One of the most important parts of the gas apparatus, and at the same time most difficult of construction, are the gasometers and reservoirs. As these are commonly made they require a cis-

tern or vessel of water, of very large dimensions, in which they are suspended, and rise and fall perpendicularly, as the gas enters and escapes; and it is extremely difficult to prevent leakage, and other accidents, unless very great expense be incurred in their construction, by nicety and solidity of the workmanship. Upon the perfect regularity of their action, too, the steadiness and perfection of the flames will materially depend; and, owing to the mode of suspension generally employed, this is scarcely attainable where the instrument is of very large dimensions.

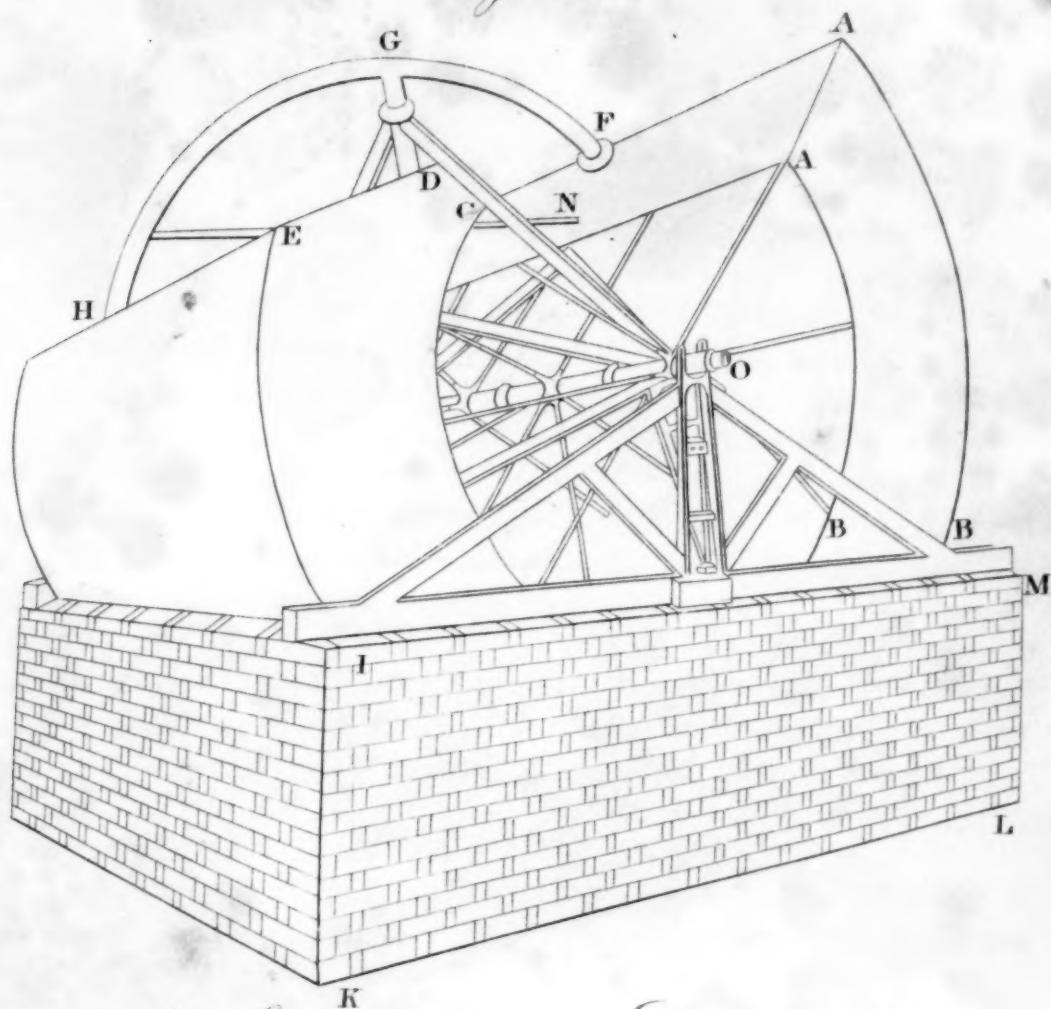
The following is a description of a rotary gasometer, erected by Mr. Clegg at the Westminster works, and in which, while the above objections are in a great measure obviated, several other advantages are incurred. Its action is so steady and regular that it has been found advantageous to suffer the gas to pass through it from the vertical gasometers, previous to entering the main pipes for the consumption in the streets and houses; and the cistern which it requires is comparatively small. [It is represented in our plate.]

Fig. I. A. A. B. B. C. D. E. represents about two thirds of a hollow rim of a wheel into which the gas is received. The end A. A. is closed; the end C. D. E. is open from D. to E; the pipe F. G. H. connects the two ends of the segment or hollow rim, and is made of sufficient weight to counterpoise the whole. This pipe is inserted air-tight into the rim at F., and contains a stop betwixt G. and H. At G. is joined a pipe, forming a communication with the hollow axis O., upon which the rim turns, and which supports it by arms and braces, after the manner of other wheels, and revolves upon a friction sector. I. K. L. M. represents the cistern of water, in which the rim is immersed sufficiently deep to counteract the pressure of the gas.

It is evident that the gas, being conveyed into the open end of the hollow axis O., which is closed at the opposite end, will proceed by the pipe G. F. into the closed end of the gasometer at F. The operation will be as follows:—Supposing the closed end A. A. at the surface of the water in the cistern, and the gas flowing in as just described, the end of the gasometer A. A. will begin to fill, and consequently to ascend, and the wheel will continue to move upon its axis, until the open end D. E. comes nearly to the surface of the water; and, when the gas is required to be discharged, it will return through the same channels by which it entered.

A sufficient power or pressure is given to the wheel for discharging the gas at the velocity required, by means of an adequate weight, suspended by a chain over a pulley; which chain is fixed to the wheel, upon a small circle, made fast to the arms, near to and round the end of the axis. Thus the wheel will retrograde as the gas is discharged, until the end A. A. again arrives at the surface of the water, when the whole of the gas will be discharged.

Fig. 1.



Mr. Clegg's Rotary Gasometer.

Fig. 2.

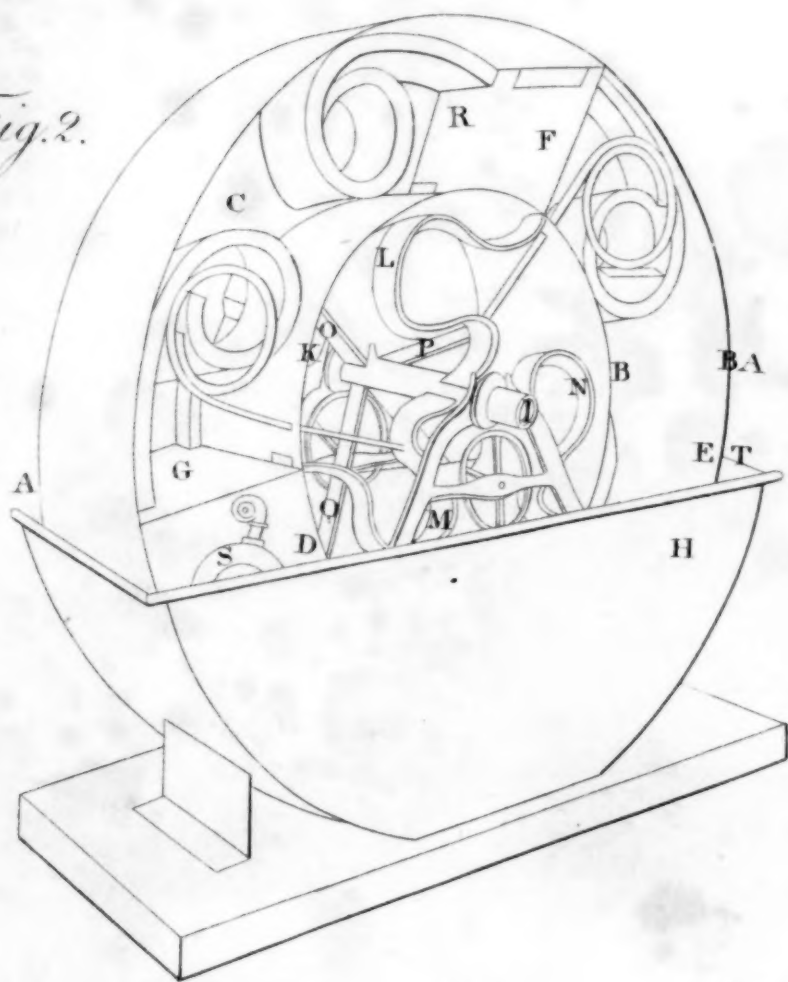
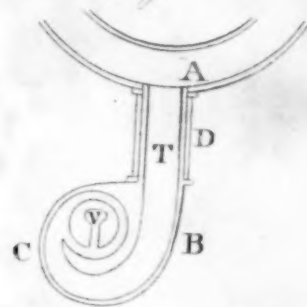


Fig. 3.



Mr. Clegg's Gas-meter or Gauge.

Fig. II. represents an instrument, invented by Mr. Clegg, of great importance to the wholesale gas manufacturer: he terms it a gasmeter, or guage, the object of which is to measure, by the number of its revolutions, the quantity of gas which passes through it in any given time, and which may be recorded, during the observer's absence, by a proper index. At present he who supplies the gas has no direct check upon the consumer; but, by connecting this guage with the pipes of supply, so that the gas entering any building or manufactory may pass through it, the quantity will be registered, and the charge may then be proportioned to the consumption. A. A. represents a wheel, the airtight rim of which, or hollow space from B. to B., should be apportioned to the number of burners it is intended to supply. A cubic foot should be allowed for eight Argand burners. This rim is divided into three equal parts; C. D. E., by three partitions, two of which are seen at F. G., and a third is placed about H. These partitions are provided with hydraulic scrolls or tubes, so constructed that, being supplied with water, the communication between the divisions is intercepted when required. The rim is supported from the hollow axis by six hollow arms, three of which conduct the gas entering at I. to the circumference, and three discharge it at the opposite extremity of the axis K., there being a stop or partition about the centre of the axis. The three crooked arms L. M. N. convey the gas to their corresponding divisions, and they are thus contorted to allow them so to contain water in their bends, as occasionally to prevent the passage of the gas into certain cavities of the circumference, which may be discharging. The three hollow arms O. P. Q. proceed in a straight line from the centre of each division, and, being continued along the edge of the rim, are inserted into the partition, so as to form a connexion, not with the division it appears to enter, but with the preceding one.

The pipe which furnishes the gas is connected at the axis at I. by a tube nearly fitting it, and secured by a semifluid; and the egress pipe is similarly connected to the opposite extremity K.

The scrolls fixed to each side of the division plates are alike. R. is a scroll of sufficient capacity to allow the water to pass freely through it, but at the same time to prevent the passage of gas. S. is another scroll, which will admit the water, when descending into it, to pass freely; and, when the wheel rises out of the water contained in the vessel H. at T., retains so much of it as to stop all communication with the gas contained in the next division, as long as required.

That the water may pass freely through the scrolls, when they enter it, the gas they contain must have free egress, and air should be admitted when they rise out of the water, in order that the water they retain may run to its level. This is effected as follows:—To the highest part of each scroll, when entering and

when rising out of the water, is fixed a tube of the following construction:

A. B. C. fig. 3, is a section of a worm pipe, of iron or glass, or any material which will retain quicksilver, and which is made tight into another tube at D. inserted into the scroll at A. There is an opening in the worm pipe at T. which forms a free communication between it and the pipe D.; and at V. is another opening, forming a communication between the worm pipe and the gas in the rim. The operation of this worm pipe is as follows:—Suppose a scroll entering the water, and the tube D. at its highest point: the worm pipe will then be nearly vertical, and the quicksilver it contains will be below T.; so that the air can pass from V. to T. to and from the scroll: but, when the worm pipe changes its position, and it is required that this opening should be closed, as when rising out of the water, the quicksilver will then occupy the bend B. C., and shut off the communication between T. and V.

The operation, therefore, of the guage will be as follows:—Supposing the wheel in the position represented in the plate, revolving from right to left, and to have made one revolution in the cistern of water, by which the scrolls will have received the water necessary for the performance of their office. There will be a free passage, through the bent arm N., into the division E., at the plate at H., which is just rising out of the water, and which, like a gasometer, will continue to rise until the next division plate comes to the surface of the water. While the division plate is descending the gas is discharged by the pipes before mentioned, at the other end of the axis. It will be observed that the wheel, in any situation, will always have one of the receiving tubes open, and one of the discharging tubes open, and consequently that it will revolve. A small tube is fixed to the periphery of the rim, for the purpose of admitting water, and keeping it at the same level as that in the cistern. The form of the tube is such as to shut off all communication with the interior of the rim and the external air, when above water; but it remains open while in the cistern.

Bertram, or the Castle of Aldobrand, a Tragedy. By the Rev. R. C. MATURIN. London. John Murray. 1816.

[From the Critical Review.*]

We are far from denying that this tragedy is a work of very considerable merit, but we cannot acknowledge that it has de-

* We mention it as a matter of some importance to literature, that a complete change has taken place both in the proprietors and conductors of the CRITICAL REVIEW. The numbers of the last and present month have been

served the success with which it has been received. All those who have seen it, have left the theatre disappointed, with no other pleasing impressions than those left by a few vigorous efforts by Mr. Kean, who seemed to throw his whole soul into the part. That he should exert himself is not singular, since he could not but be flattered by the fact that the piece was written expressly for the display of his extraordinary powers. But who, on seeing the representation, takes the least interest in its hero? Is he not, on the contrary, a being composed of all repulsive qualities—of bad passions, of malignant designs—in short, of nothing that can entitle him to love or admiration but the firm attachment he displays for Imogene?

In the invention of the character of Bertram, all persons are aware that the reverend author is not original; it is in fact an adaptation to the stage of one of the heroes of lord Byron, who has set the fashion of liking such beings at a very fortunate moment for Mr. Maturin—indeed, without Lara or the Giaour, it is probable that Bertram would never have seen the light. To this circumstance may, we think, be mainly attributed the run which this tragedy has already experienced. Holcroft's "Vindictive Man" was condemned for the one bad passion that appeared in the title; but now an evil taste has been acquired by the town, and we find a hero devoid of every virtue and of every affection, but one, received with rapturous applause.

Against the heroine we bring no complaint; indeed we should be devoid of all candour did we not allow that she is drawn with a simplicity and beauty scarcely so well portrayed since the days of our great dramatists. There is a delicacy in her thoughts and expressions that wins our hearts from the first scene, and ill prepares us for what is supposed to happen between the third and fourth acts. The spectators are not, we believe, in general aware of the gross insult there offered to morality—of the heinous crime of which Imogene is made guilty, which destroys the charm of untainted loveliness which the author at first had thrown round her character. The apparent ambiguity that prevails upon this

wholly under this new direction, and we observe some important alterations in respect to it: we see that foreign productions have not been disregarded, that recent publications of the most valuable description have been comprehended, and that a novelty to periodical works of this kind has been introduced, which in the present state of public taste will not be unacceptable: we mean, a department entitled *Bibliotheca Antiqua*, or a review of old works of much interest and curiosity which are not easy of access, either from the great expense of the originals, or of the reprints. For this part of the undertaking we are informed the editors have ample resources, and it is their intention not to rake from its dust the forgotten trash of early times, unless for the sake of illustrating some interesting question connected with the researches of the antiquary or the historian. The CRITICAL REVIEW has now been sixty years before the public, during which many of the best writers of the age have contributed to it; and we trust it will regain, under the present conductors, its former station in the republic of letters.

New Monthly Magazine.

point, from the dark manner in which it is handled, saved the first piece from that indignation which assuredly it would have met with from a British audience, had the offence been made more apparent. Yet, without the belief of its commission, it is impossible to account for the dreadful catastrophe.

These two are in fact the only characters in the tragedy. St. Aldobrand, the injured husband of Imogene, is not seen till the third, and is killed in the fourth act, and the language of the part given to him, does not render him more prominent. The scene between him and his wife, after the fatal meeting of the latter and Bertram, has rather a ludicrous than a tragical effect, from the easy manner in which the good man is put off by the lady, who receives him with the utmost repugnance. Clotilda is merely a confidant made necessary by the scantiness of the characters—a sort of talking-post, upon the French model, for the reception of the heroine's thoughts and designs, which are, as generally happens in such cases, communicated with as little reserve as apparent motive. Four or five monks (among whom the prior of St. Anselm, the oldest and most infirm, is made to play a most active and courageous part,) complete the *dramatis personee*.

With regard to the plot, action, and conduct of the piece, nothing can be more defective, tame, and injudicious. We do not mean that the fable is not, as far as it goes, interesting, but it is much too meagre to be spun out into five long acts: it might really be told in half a page, did we wish to repeat it to our readers; and for the action and conduct, they scarcely keep attention awake, more especially in the two last acts, where the whole catastrophe is as well known as the previous part of the play. Here, however, it fortunately happens that Kean is able to rescue his friend by some very fine, and we must say, without meaning to enter into particulars, some very bad specimens of his art. What can be better than the silent and repentant prayer in which he is interrupted? What can be worse than the manner in which he delivers himself up to the knights, with the words "my executioners, not my conquerors." Miss Somerville, in the general peal of whose praises we cannot altogether chime, was also of great service to Mr. Maturin; she had enough talent not to be ridiculous, and enough beauty not to be uninteresting.

The language of the tragedy receives our almost unqualified approbation as an effusion of poetry in a dramatic form; we could quote many beautiful passages, but rather of the descriptive than of the scenic kind, for the principal error of the author (who has acquired the habit from the composition of his romances) is, that he makes the persons enter too much into a detail of their own qualities and habits, when in reality there is nothing of which they could be more incompetent judges. The tragedy, as a whole, promises greater success on a second attempt.

(From the *Champion*.)*Mador of the Moor*—A Poem, by James Hogg.

Murray, 1816.

THERE have been many men who have undeservedly obtained the reputation of poets. Such persons, we mean, who have been made poetical by reading. Their minds have been *recipient*—not inventive—imitative of the observations of others, not observant themselves. They have imbibed what is called the *language of poetry*, but they have not been able to grasp its *substance*. They may be said to have arrived at the banks of Castaly—to have plucked the flowers growing by its side—to have looked with complacency, and even pleasure, upon its waters;—but some secret-working, undefinable spell has paralyzed their power, at the instant when they attempted to plunge into the stream. That “mob of gentlemen,” who wrote with ease in the jocund days of the voluptuous Charles, was of this quality of mind. And of the numerous names that have come down to us from that time we think that the mighty disproportion of nine out of ten may be placed among this order of imitators.—We trust our readers will apprehend our meaning, without our entering into a long detail of names.

We have now, however, poets that forcibly set before us the genius of “olden times.”—The names of Wordsworth, Moore, Byron, and Coleridge,—whose

“Souls are like the stars that dwell apart,”

will throw their light into the bosom of after ages.

Mr. Hogg, the author of the poem before us, though it would be doing him prejudice, because injustice, to compare him with the above high names, must be a poet of considerable rank. He has much original genius. He seems to be “made in the poetry of nature”—that is, he loves all those fine parts of her which it is the province of poetry to love and cherish. The following stanzas, out of the introduction to “*Mador of the Moor*,” will show his close-eyed observations of nature; and his love of it:—

“There the dark raven builds his dreary home;
The eagle o’er his eyrie raves aloud;
The brindled fox around thee loves to roam,
And ptarmigans, the inmates of the cloud;
And when the summer flings her dappled shroud,
O’er reddening moors, and wilds of softened gray,
The youthful swain, unfashioned, unendowed,
The brocket and the lamb may round thee play:
These thy first guests alone, thou fair majestic Tay!

But bear me, spirit of the gifted eye,
Far on thy pinions eastward to the main,
O’er garish glens and straths of every kind,
Where oxen low and waves the yellow grain;

Where bustling cliffs o'erhang the belted plain,
 In spiral forms, fantastic, wild, and riven;
 Where swell the woodland choir and maiden's strain,
 As forests bend unto the breeze of even,
 And in the flood beneath wave o'er a downward heaven." p. 5.

There is great beauty in these descriptive stanzas; but we do not give them as the best of the poem, but merely by chance, to illustrate our observation of Mr. Hogg's love of nature—a feeling most valuable in the breast of a poet. Mr. H. seems quite at home in the fields. He loves

"To wander
 Adown some trotting burns' meander,
 And nae think long."

He derives all his figures and similes from the mountains, the fields, and the heavens. Even the passions of the mind are thus illustrated—as

"No beam of anger rayed her glistening eye,
 It sunk like star within the rubied west;
*Or like the tinted dew-bell seen to lie
 Upon the rose-leaf tremblingly at rest,
 Then softly sinks upon its opening breast.* p. 123.

The shifting hues that sported o'er her face,
 Were like the streamers of the rosy Eve. p. 135.

We could give many other like passages, but these will do for our purpose.

He sometimes, however, shows that he can rise higher than mere description, and natural imagery, as in the following passage of an exquisite ballad in the first canto:

Than the caryl liftit the babe se young,
 And nemit hir with ane tremilous tung;
And the lychte of God strak on his face,
 As he nelit on the dewe, and callit her Grace. p. 37.

We shall make but one more extract, which we think excessively beautiful:

The rainbow's lovely in the eastern cloud,
 The rose is beauteous on the bended thorn,
 Sweet is the evening ray from purple shroud,
 And sweet the orient blushes of the morn,
 Sweeter than all the beauties which adorn
 The female form in youth and maiden bloom,
 O why should passion ever man suborn,
 To work the sweetest flower of nature's doom,
 And cast o'er all her joys a veil of cheerless gloom.

O fragile flower! that blossoms but to fade!
 One slip recovery or recall defies!
 Thou walkst the dizzy verge with steps untaid,
 Fair as the habitants of yonder skies!
 Like them thou fallest never more to rise!

O fragile flower! for thee my heart's in pain!
 Haply a world is hid from mortal eyes,
 Where thou may'st smile in purity again,
 And shine in virgin bloom that ever shall remain. p. 50.

We have not space to make further extracts; but what have been given, we think, are sufficient to justify our remarks upon the style of Mr. H.'s poetry. Nor will our limits allow us to enter into the story of "Mador of the Moor." There is one thing, however, which forces us to disagree, and almost to quarrel with Mr. H—. We allude to the management of his story. The first canto is all mystery—it is enveloped in a cloud! The forms are faintly shadowed out—not distinctly drawn to the size. The second canto is more natural,—and the third, quite so;—but the fourth is *supernatural*:—the fifth gains upon nature again, but cannot get free from romance.—This wavering between one and the other gives the poem a character of inconsistency, which for the respect we entertain for the talents of Mr. H—, we are sorry to see. The *Queen's Wake* showed us the powers of Mr. H. in the ballad-style, in which he greatly excels,—and, in this, he has improved upon—not departed from—his former excellence.

(FROM ACKERMAN'S REPOSITORY.)

SINCERITAS IN SEARCH OF A WIFE.

MR. EDITOR,

WILL you permit an unfortunate lover of truth to apply to you for assistance? Dont be alarmed, my dear sir, I do not mean pecuniary assistance; but, from the nature of your work, it may be in your power to serve me, and I will lay my case before you as briefly as I can.—From my earliest infancy, sir, I have been a martyr to my veneration for truth: the famed Candide himself never was more zealously devoted to Sincera than your unfortunate humble servant. I was the younger son of a good family, and was destined, even from my cradle, to make my way in the world by matrimony, although no plan could have been more unpromising; for I am, unfortunately, very ugly, and, being a younger son, was but scantily gifted with the favours of Plutus: but the machiavelian genius of my mother would, I believe, have conquered all the disadvantages of nature and fortune, had not my unlucky sincerity been a perpetual stumbling-block in the way. I shall not trouble you with a detail of the various misfortunes which I met with, in my childhood, from speaking the truth. At twenty I returned from the university, and, before I had been three days in the house of my parents, I had contrived to tell so many disagreeable truths to every one of the family that I had raised myself a host of enemies; and, had not my father unluckily prophesied that I never should get a wife, I believe my mother would

have relinquished the matrimonial speculations she had formed for me; but, as she always made it a rule to act in decided opposition to him, she determined to find a helpmate for me directly. Miss Prune, the daughter of an eminent grocer, with a fortune of nearly a plum, had been recently introduced to my mother, who was perfectly willing to overlook her want of birth in favour of her money. My prospect with this young lady was tolerably fair. Mr. Prune, though he could with difficulty make shift to read the foreign intelligence in the daily papers, by skipping all the *hard* names, had a great veneration for *larning*; and, though he could not trace his family so far back as his great-grandfather, he was determined to marry his daughter to a gentleman. I had, therefore, the father's warmest wishes for my success, and, after my mother had spent a whole hour in exhorting me not to ruin myself by speaking the truth to the daughter, we set off to dine with the Prunes *en famille*. I conducted myself tolerably well in the beginning of our visit, for I scarcely spoke. Miss Prune was evidently a raw, uncultivated girl, but she appeared timid and silent—two qualities which I greatly admire in the fair sex. As my unlucky stars would have it, she had that day written a complimentary note, in French, to a friend of hers, who was newly married, and her papa desired her to show it to me. I saw my mother change colour, and, hastily snatching up the note, she ran her eye over it, and declared it was charming. "You are too partial to my Patty, my lady," cried the father; "but let us hear what the scholar will say to it." The precious *morceau* was handed to me; but, after making two or three attempts to read it, I was obliged to give it up, and return it to the young lady, with a declaration that it was not French. In fact, Mr. Editor, though I did not carry my love of truth so far as to tell her so, she might as well have called it Chinese. Miss blushed, and her meekness gave place to a degree of virulence which I think I never saw equalled. Papa was as much affronted, because it was impossible, with such a *hedication* as he had given to Pat, she could be so *hignorant*. My mother's excuses for my behaviour were unavailing, and I made my exit without any invitation to repeat my visit. My mamma's reproaches for what she called my absurd conduct were loud and bitter, and it was a considerable time before I was again exhibited to any of her acquaintance, in the character of a would-be Benedict. At length she sent for me into her dressing-room, and informed me that she had had a hint from the uncle of Miss Lofty that his niece would not be averse to receive my addresses. "But I should be extremely averse to pay them," replied I, "if her mind corresponds with her face; for I never saw an uglier woman in my life." My mother replied only by a significant glance at a mirror, near which I stood. I could not deny the *truth* of its *reflection*; but I consoled myself by thinking that I was only ugly, and that Miss Lofty was absolutely hideous; for every evil passion was pictured in her countenance. However, my mother gained

my father over to her party, and the two families became almost inseparable; the young lady put on the mask of amiability, and I was beginning to believe that there is no truth in *faces*, when an incident occurred that showed her to me in her real colours, and terminated my addresses. She had an acquaintance, a young lady, whose conduct had always been strictly correct, but who, to avoid a marriage which her parents wished to force her into, had eloped from them, and kept the place of her retreat a profound secret. In a day or two after her elopement one of the footmen absconded with some of the plate. The natural malignity of Miss Lofty prompted her to seize upon this circumstance to injure the fame of the young lady, and she circulated a report, which was speedily believed, that they had eloped together. She had hitherto veiled from me her love of scandal; but I happened to make my visit at the moment in which she was entertaining a select company with an account of Miss ——'s infamous conduct. She stopped when I appeared; but a lady present took up the cause of the absent fair one, and spoke so warmly in her favour that my intended was thrown off her guard so far as to declare that she knew the story to be true. "Mention not the sacred name of truth," cried I, "in support of an uncharitable assertion, which you cannot prove, and which candour should have prevented you from making. Know you not that the highwayman is, in comparison with the slanderer, an innocent character? Remember what our immortal bard says,

"Who steals my purse steals trash,
 "But he who filches from me my good name—"

She did not give me time to finish my quotation, for she desired that I would instantly quit her house, and never enter it again. You may believe, Mr. Editor, I took her at her word; for, though she afterwards made some overtures toward a reconciliation, nothing could prevail upon me to listen to them.

By this time my disposition began to be pretty well known amongst the circle of our intimates, and my mother almost despaired of success in a third negotiation; but women, you know, Mr. Editor, have a great deal of perseverance. Miss Sparkle, a distant relation of her own, returned from a continental trip about this time, and I happened to be present when she paid my mother a visit. During a conversation which I held with her, of two hours' length, I found that I could be polite to her, without once violating the laws of my beloved truth. Her understanding was of the first order, and highly cultivated, and her disposition appeared most amiable. My attentions to Miss Sparkle were not lost upon my politic mamma, who would not suffer her to depart without extorting from her a promise to become our inmate for a few weeks; and no sooner was she gone than both my parents congratulated me upon the fair prospect I had of getting a rich

wife at last. To be brief, Mr. Editor, Miss Sparkle became our guest, and for nearly three weeks I had not an opportunity of telling her a single disagreeable truth; and, in spite of my plain face and want of fortune, she did me the honour to avow a partiality in my favour. In short, matters were going on swimmingly when my evil genius spoiled all. One day, while we were chatting together in her dressing-room, Mr. Dapperwit was announced, and a little man entered, whom I supposed, from his air and deportment, to be one of the numerous tribe of male artists whom ladies, in these days, employ to decorate their persons; but I soon found that I had committed a great mistake; for Miss Sparkle introduced him to me as a celebrated author; and, after a few compliments, he told her he had called to beg permission to dedicate to her a small volume of poems, which he had at press. He had, he said, written a poetical dedication, which he requested leave to read. She gave an assenting bow; but he had not repeated ten lines when I found truth so outraged that I interrupted his panegyric by a philippic on the gross flattery with which it abounded. Would you believe it, Mr. Editor, the impudent little retainer to the muses had the effrontery to declare that he had not said half the truth; and Miss Sparkle—(oh! Vanity, thy name is woman!) was evidently persuaded of his sincerity. I bridled my passion till he was gone; but the truths which I then began to tell his fair patroness were interrupted by her assuring me that she considered my conduct as a gross insult, and that she would never give her hand to a man who denied her those good qualities which all the world allowed her to possess. It was in vain that I assured her the perfections which Mr. Dapperwit's muse had bestowed upon her could not with *truth* be attributed to any human being: she would not listen to me; and that very day she quitted our house, though the time she had agreed to remain with us was not half expired.

I shall not attempt to describe to you the indignation of my mamma, who now began to think I was absolutely incorrigible, and for some time I enjoyed a little peace, which, as I had now completely established my character as an uncouth savage, whose manners were worse than those of an inhabitant of Otaheite, I was in hopes I should continue to enjoy; but I was once more compelled to appear in the character of an enamoured swain.—Mrs. Mature, a widow, who was a few years older than myself, but whose manners and person were very pleasing, was the next object whom my industrious mamma pointed out to my notice. I found her a very rational woman, and our sentiments were apparently very similar. She had some faults; but when I told her of them she listened to me with patience and good humour, and promised to correct them. Enchanted to find a woman who would listen without anger to the voice of truth, I thought I had found a second Fatimé, when an unlucky accident overturned all my bright prospects. One day Mrs. Mature, after praising the beauty

of a female friend of hers, asked me whether I did not think her a very fine woman. "She has been extremely handsome, no doubt," replied I, "when she was young." "When she was young!" replied the widow, "why, pray, sir, do you call her old?" "She cannot, certainly, with truth, be styled young," cried I, "for she is considerably turned of thirty; at which age she would, in many parts of the world, be considered an old woman." "We think differently in England, however," replied Mrs. Mature, with an air of pique. "My friend is hardly arrived at the prime of life, according to our ideas: she has not yet reached the fashionable age." "Your ideas, then, are erroneous," cried I; "but it is not wonderful that fashion should be at variance with truth." "What you are pleased to call truth I must style rudeness," replied she: "I am nearly of the same age as Mrs. —, and you may suppose I shall not be very ready to give my hand to a man who thinks me an old woman." It was in vain that I assured her my affection was founded upon her mental perfections, and that youth and beauty were qualities which I disregarded. This unlucky attempt to conciliate matters made them ten times worse, and she actually rang for a servant to show me the door.

I was by this time, Mr. Editor, so completely sickened of my matrimonial speculations, that neither threats nor intreaties could prevail on me to act the lover again; and in all probability I should have been suffered to do as I pleased, but for the death of my elder brother, which happened soon after I had attained my twenty-fifth year, and from that moment I have been plagued equally by my father and mother to enter into the holy state, which I am assured I may now do whenever I please; for it is truly astonishing, Mr. Editor, how much I am altered in the opinion of the ladies since I became heir to an estate and title. My figure, which formerly they never noticed, is allowed to be very genteel, and, as to my face, though it is plain, beauty is of no consequence in a man. My love of truth, which formerly they called ill manners and ill nature, is now transformed into an agreeable bluntness; and, with all my *oddities*, I am allowed to be a very pleasant animal, who would be very likely to make a good husband. But, my dear Mr. Editor, this favourable opinion which the ladies entertain of me has not its foundation in truth; for I should never become, in their acceptation of the word, a good husband; since my wife must expect to hear the truth, and nothing but the truth (however disagreeable it might be to her), from me. Now, sir, if, amongst your fair readers, there should be one, whose person is not deformed, whose age is under forty, whose temper and disposition are good, and who, above all, would cheerfully subscribe to the above conditions, I declare that the want of either birth or fortune shall be no obstacle to my bestowing on her the hand and heart of

Your very humble servant,

SINCERITAS.

POETRY.

FROM THE EXAMINER OF JUNE.

Harry Brown to his cousin Thomas Brown, Jun.

LETTER I.

Here, here sweetly murmur the bees,
Here talk the quick birds in the trees,
And the pines drop their nuts at their ease.

THEOCRITUS.

DEAR TOM, who enjoying your brooks and your bowers,
Live just like a bee, when he's flushest of flowers,—
A maker of sweets, busy sparkling, and singing,
Yet armed with an exquisite point too for stinging,—
I owe you a letter, and having this time
A whole series to write to you, send them in rhyme;
For rhyme, with it's air, and it's step-springing tune,
Helps me on, as a march does a soldier in June;
And when chatting to you, I've a something about me,
That makes all my spirits come dancing from out me;

I told you, you know, you should have a detail
Of Hampstead's whole merits,—heath, wood, hill, and vale,—
And threatened in consequence (only admire
The metal one's turned to by dint of desire)
To draw you all near me,—vain dog that I was,—
As the bees are made swarm by the chinking of brass.

(By the bye, this comparison, well understood,—
Is modestly speaking, still better than good;
For a man who once kept them in London, they say,
Found out that they came here to dine every day.)

But at present, for reasons I'll give when we meet,
I shall spare you the trouble,—I mean to say, treat;—
Yet how can I touch, and not linger awhile,
On the spot that has haunted my youth like a smile?
On it's fine breathing prospects, it's clump-wooded glades,
Dark pines and white houses, and long-allied shades,
With fields going down, where the bard lies and sees
The hills up above him with roofs in the trees?
Now too, while the season,—half summer, half spring.—
Brown elms and green oaks,—makes one loiter and sing;
And the bee's weighty murmur comes by us at noon,
And the cuckoo repeats his short indolent tune,
And little white clouds lie about in the sun,
And the wind's in the west, and hay-making begun?

Even now while I write, I'm half stretched on the ground,
With a check-smoothing air coming taking me round,
Betwixt hillocks of green, plumed with fern and wild flowers,
While my eye closely follows the bees in their bowers.

People talk of "*poor* insects," (although, by the way,
Your old friend, ANACREON, was wiser than they;)*
But lord, what a set of delicious retreats
The epicures live in,—shades, colours, and sweets!
The least clumps of verdure, on peeping into 'em,
Are emerald groves, with bright shapes winding through 'em;
And sometimes I wonder, when poking down by 'em,
What odd sort of giant the rogues may think I am.
Here perks from his arbour of crimson or green
A beau, who slips backward as though he were seen!—
Here over my paper another shall go,
Looking just like a traveller lost in the snow,—
Till he reaches the writing,—and then, when he's eyed it,
What nodding, and touching, and coasting beside it!
No fresh-water spark, in his uniform fine,
Can be graver when he too first crosses the line:—
Now he stops at a question, as who should say "Hey?"
Now casts his round eye up the yawn of an A:
Now resolves to be bold, half afraid he shall sink,
And like GIFFORD before him, can't tell what to think.

Oh the wretched transition to insects like these
From those of the country! To town from the trees!
Ah TOM,—you who have run the gay circle of life,
And squared it, at last, with your books and a wife,—
Who in Bond-street by day, when the press has been thickest,
Have had all the "*digito monstror*" and "*hic est*,"†
Who've shone at great houses in coach-crowded streets,
Amidst lights, wits, and beauties, and musical treats,
And had the best pleasure a guest could befall,
In being, yourself, the best part of it all,—
Can the town (and I'm fond of it too, when I'm there)
Can the town, after all, with the country compare?

But this is a subject I keep for my last,
Like the fruit in green leaves, which concludes a repast.—
Adieu. In my next you'll hear more of the town;
Till when, and for ever, dear Coz.

HARRY BROWN.

* ANACREON, "the wise," as PLATO called him, says in his delicious little ode, that he looks upon the grasshopper as next to the Gods; and I do not scruple to say, with the license becoming one of the BROWNS, that he spoke in the true spirit of one himself,—enjoying the creature's enjoyment, without any of the pettier assumptions of humanity. COWLEY, by the way, who has felt all this spirit of his author, though he lost sight of his simplicity, has a beautiful line in his paraphrase:—

Fed with the nourishment divine,
The dewy morning's gentle wine.

† HORACE to his Muse, and PERSIUS in allusion to him:—

Totum muneris hoc tui est,
Quod monstror digito prætereuntium
Romanæ fidicen lyræ:—
Quod spiro, et placeo (si placeo) tuum est.

Lib. 4. Ode 5.

To thee alone I owe, dear muse of mine,
That people point me out, passing along,
As leader of my country's lyric song:—
Yes,—that I live and please (if please) is thine.

DOMESTIC LITERATURE.

HARRISON HALL has issued proposals for publishing, by subscription, DR. CAMPBELL'S WESTERN ANTIQUITIES; with additions, illustrations, and a biographical sketch of Dr. Campbell, by James R. Wilson, A. M. Dr. Campbell for many years had contemplated writing the history of Kentucky, where he resided. During his researches, with a view to that work, much of his attention was drawn to the antique forts, towns and natural curiosities which abound in the great central valley of North America; and he prepared, and determined to publish, a separate essay on those interesting subjects. The last three years of his life were almost wholly devoted to the collection of materials illustrative of the ancient history of our continent. The work will form one 8vo volume, illustrated with twelve engravings, and will be delivered to subscribers at \$2 50, in boards. All the profits of the work will belong to Dr. Campbell's widow and children.

From some late London Magazines we understand that the poem of Ilderim (noticed in our last number) is the production of H. Gally Knight, esq.

In our notice of the Antiquary we stated that it was written by a Mr Greenfield. It seems, however, that we were not altogether correct. After making a great many pert remarks upon the subject (from which any body might know that they were tickled at possessing a secret), the Critical Reviews have this paragraph in their critique of the book:

"We have also our opinion upon this point, not founded in speculation, but upon authority which we have no reason to doubt. We understand that the name of the author of "Waverly," "Guy Mannering" and "the Antiquary" is Forbes; that he is the son of a Scotch baronet—that he was educated at the school of Dr. Valpy, at Reading, and that he is now in the twenty-seventh year of his age. We are not at liberty to disclose the source from whence we derive this information: it must suffice to say that the fact has our belief, and that it has been confirmed by circumstantial evidence."

 FOREIGN LITERATURE AND SCIENCE.

FRANCE.—*Douanes de France.—Tarif Général des Droits d'Entrée et de Sortie, dressé en vertu de la loi du 28 Avril, 1816, par les soins de M. le conseiller d'état, directeur général, et approuvé par arrêté de son excellence le ministre secrétaire d'état des finances, en date du 3 Juin, 1816. Prix 6 francs. A Paris, de l'imprimerie royale. Large 4to, pp. 124. 1816.*

THIS tariff of French duties is upon altogether a new plan, and commerce must now owe to France as much as chymistry

has long owed, for the accuracy and order with which she has classified its various articles. The outline of the scheme is briefly this.—Each page is divided into seven perpendicular columns; in the first of which the ‘denominations of merchandize’ are arranged in alphabetical sequence—beginning with the generic name, and thence descending through all the ramification of species. This column occupies about half the page, and the remaining six are devoted to the specification of duties on importation and exportation.

It is not our present intention to enter into any detail of all the subjects which the tariff embraces, but to transcribe that part only which relates particularly to this article. We learn, in the preliminary observations, that, “independently of the customs (*droits de douanes*), which, upon books imported in French vessels, are 25 francs; if in foreign vessels, 27 francs, 50 centiemes to the 100 killogrames, or 200*l.* English; all books, printed in foreign countries, and brought into France, must pay a duty of 150 francs to the 200*l.* (if they are in the French language) and 75 francs (if in any living foreign language). Those which are printed in France, and thence carried to other countries, pay 51 centiemes by the 100 killogrames (200*l.*) or 15 centiemes by the 100 francs in value—at the option of the owner or exporter. No importation can take place without the permission of the minister of the general police, pointing out the port of entry. Books presented, without such permission, are to be seized—at least if they are not addressed to the minister himself. Notices of the permits which have been granted must be sent to the custom-house officers (*directeurs des douanes*), in order to prevent all surprise. Books, admitted in virtue of special authorizations, must be immediately despatched to the nearest prefecture, with a specification of the number of the permit—a precaution which must also be scrupulously observed in the transmission of books destined for Paris. Travellers (*voyageurs*) are relieved of formalities; but to the catalogue of the books which they have with them, and which they aver are for their own use, they must subscribe a promise that they will not dispose of them; and there must be duplicate catalogues of such as are reputed the objects of commerce.” Such are what the French minister of finance is pleased to denominate *the formalities* of importing and exporting books. We have no very good means of ascertaining the state of the press in the interior of France; but we know that six individuals have lately incurred the sentence of transportation for an alleged libel, and that several others have been sentenced to ten and twenty years’ imprisonment, for a similar offence against the government. Some printers, however, have been bold enough to republish translations of some elementary English school books, such as Blair’s Universal Preceptor and Grammar of Philosophy, Goldsmith’s Elementary Geographies, together with some others, which are equally free from dangerous political tendencies. The following

extracts from British publications contain the only information we can present our readers relative to the state of French literature:

Among the curiosities of the day, we must not entirely pass over the *fac simile* copies of the last letter, or will, of Marie Antoinette of Austria, queen of France, written Oct. 18, 1793. It has been copied with the most scrupulous exactness, by more than one engraver, at Paris.

ROSES AND LILIES.—The work on lilies, by M. Redouté, which has been some years in a course of publication, is at length concluded in *Eighty* numbers, forming eight volumes in folio: the price is 3,200 fr. (150*l.*) subscription price. This seems to be a sufficient homage paid to a single flower, which, however, presents among the curious, a great variety of species, each marked by its proper form, manners, and beauties.—M. Redouté, whose work on lilies is now closed, proposes to direct his attention to a similar work on roses. He observes, very justly, that the culture of the rose is of late become a subject of study among a great number of naturalists and amateurs:—that most gardens of any magnitude, contain collections of roses, more or less extensive; while this beautiful flower, by its form, its fragrance, and its colours, has established its reputation, as an object of fashion, and, in short, may be deemed popular. When the rose was less in request, a small number of varieties was all that was known; and these were placed in gardens without much consideration or display; but, now, the number of beautiful species is increased, and these are more sought after and preferred. The author proposes to treat the rose as he has already treated the lily; that is to say, to furnish an exact representation of each species, drawn from nature, with a summary description; the whole coloured, &c. with strict fidelity. The subscription price for each number, containing six plates, is about sixteen shillings.

De Montucci occupies himself incessantly in advancing his Dictionary of the Chinese Language. About the end of the year 1814, he had cut 14,000 new characters; and he expected to be able to complete the number wanted—and being many more than 10,000, before the present year was far advanced.

The principal French journals, at present, in a course of publication, are, *Magazin Encyclopedique*, or *Journal of Sciences, Letters, and Arts*, by the Chevalier Millin. Yearly subscription, 42 francs.—*Annales de l'Agriculture Française*; by M. M. Tessier and Bose. Subscription, 25 francs.—*Bibliothèque Physico-Economique*, by Arthur Bertrand. Subscription, 10 francs.—*Annales de Chimie*. Subscription, 21 francs.—*Journal de Médecine*, by Dr. J. J. Leroux. Price, 10 francs.—*Gazette de Santé*, by Drs. Gardanne, Pinel, Poulet, Montégre. Subscription, 18 francs.—*Journal de Physique, de Chimie, d'Histoire Naturelle, et des Arts*, by J. C. de la Metherie. Subscription, 27 francs.—*Journal des Mines*. Subscription, 21 francs.—*Journal des Audi-*

ences de la Cour de Cassation, by J. B. Jalbert. Subscription, 24 francs.—Journal du Palais,—Subscription, 50 francs.—Journal du Commerce, de Politique, et de Litterature. Subscription, 68 francs.—Bulletin de la Société d'encouragement pour l'Industrie Nationale, by J. N. Barbier de Wémar. Subscription, 30 francs.—Bibliothèque Britannique, chez Magimel. Subscription, 42 francs.—Journal Général des Theatres, by Ricard. Subscription, 42 francs.

††† The prices marked are those charged at Paris.

The French journals and lighter works of the same nature, have certainly an appropriate interest among the literati: this has been felt in Germany, where they have long maintained a certain popularity. Messrs. Henri and Richard, announce a work, to be supported in conjunction, that is intended to supercede the occasion for those foreign communications. It will appear periodically, and will be formed of extracts, critical analyses, and annunciations referring to the following objects.

1. The most interesting memoirs on the events of the times.—
2. Extracts from the descriptions and observations afforded by the best modern travellers.—
3. Biographical notices of distinguished contemporaries.
4. Historical illustration of passing events.—
5. Pictures of national manners, and character.—
6. Selections from the most striking passages of the romances, tales, novels, fables, poems, &c. which daily visit Germany in great numbers.—
7. Critical analyses of the most considerable French works.—
8. Extracts from the French literary journals.

The title of the work will be *Le Nouvelliste Français*.

We are somewhat gratified in stating that the portraits of our greatest naval and military heroes,—such as Hull, Decatur, Bainbridge, Porter, Chauncey, Jones, Perry, Lawrence, Pike, Scott, and Brown, have been copied in France from the former numbers of the *Analectic Magazine*. Besides the officers abovementioned the engraver has included upon the same plate the action of the Constitution with the *Guerriere*, and of the United States with the *Macedonian*; and, as the whole is neatly executed, it forms a very beautiful picture.

ENGLAND.

The Elgin Marbles.—The greatest part of this celebrated collection of Grecian sculpture is taken from the Temple of Minerva, at Athens,—which was built under the superintendence of Phidias about 500 years before Christ. It consists of three orders,—of perfect statues, or such as are sculptured at full length and stand upon isolated pedestals,—of figures in the very highest relief, or such as are almost perfect statues and are fastened to blocks of marble by a very slight attachment,—and of figures in the very lowest relief, or such as rise but very little above the general superficies of the marble and seem to be on the boundary line be-

tween sculpture and painting.—From the Parthenon or Temple of Minerva there are seventeen of the first order, fourteen of the second, and fifty-two of the third. Lord Elgin obtained also a part of his collection from other buildings: from the Temple of Victory four pieces of the second class,—from the triple Temple of Erectheus, Minerva Polias and Pandrosa eighteen architectural specimens,—and from the Theatre of Bacchus three nondescript pieces. There are, still further, thirteen detached heads or fragments of heads; thirty-five detached pieces of various sculpture; eleven urns of marble and three of bronze, together with some hundreds of vases,—all of which were dug up near Athens: eight altars; thirteen sepulchral pillars; forty-four casts in plaister of Paris of the friezes of Parthenon, the Temple of Theseus, and the Choraic monument of Lysicrates;—sixty-six marbles with inscriptions (the famous Sigæan among the rest;) an ancient lyre and two ancient flutes of cedar, found in making an excavation near Athens; sixty-six gold, five hundred and seventy-seven silver, and two hundred and thirty-seven copper medals. To this catalogue is also added a large collection of drawings of Grecian Antiquities.—It will be impossible to admit an account of all these Athenian relics. Two are said to be supereminently fine:—the first a statue of Theseus, or of Hercules—or at all events of a young god, reclining gracefully on the rocks of Olympus, which is covered with a lion's skin and an ample drapery: the second the representation of Neptune, or of Ilissus, who is also in a reclining posture,—but who appears, at the same time, to be springing up from the rock by an impulse of joy for Minerva's victory in the contest for Athens. This was a difficult undertaking; and the artist has chosen the moment when the whole weight of the body was thrown on the left arm, which, as well as the right foot, is resting on the rock. The expression of the skin is perfect;—and there is (says Mr. Visconti) an animation and a spirit of life in the figure, which are rarely to be found in the works of art. In representing *natural* beauty the Theseus and Ilissus,—in representing *ideal* beauty the Laocoon and Apollo of Belvedere,—are considered as the chefs d'oeuvre of sculpture. This is the concurrent opinion of West, Nollekens, Westmacott, Chanutry, Flaxman, Rossi, Wilkins, Visconti, and Conova;—in opposition, to which stands the solitary judgment of a Mr. Payne Knight; who thinks the statues of Lord Elgin are only in the second rank of excellence, because they are so polished as to exhibit no marks of the chissel;—for the same reason that Mr. K. would probably look contemptuously upon perfect typography, because (unlike old black letter) it was too exempt from all errors of the press!—When we are speaking of these statues the reader must not imagine that they are by any means entire; for to every one of them we might apply a description similar to Shakspeare's:—they are 'sans heads, sans arms, sans legs, sans almost every thing'.—We have abstracted this account from an article in the Quarterly Review.

The author of "Conversations on Chymistry" is preparing Conversations on Political Economy.

An Irish clergyman has prepared for Dublin a periodical corn-table, exhibiting the reciprocal prices of corn at all the great corn-markets, reduced to their several standards of money and measures, and exhibiting the results of several hundred calculations. He proposes to transfer the same plan to the markets of Great Britain, and to publish in London, every week, a similar table, which, there can be no doubt, will be found highly useful to corn-dealers, factors, &c. &c.

A respectable quarterly miscellany has been commenced at Bristol, under the title of *the Bristol Memorialist*. The first part contains some specimens of composition, not inferior to any that is to be met with in the journals of the southern or northern metropolis, and also much curious information relative to local subjects, whose interest is, however, of a general nature.

Reliquiæ Hearnianæ, or the Genuine remains of Thomas Hearne, are preparing for the press, in 2 vols. 8vo. This celebrated antiquary left no less than a hundred and fifty (or more) pocket volumes, written in his own hand, containing what may very justly be termed a *Diary of his Pursuits*. This diary comprises his opinions on books and persons, a considerable portion of his correspondence, anecdotes of his acquaintance, and indeed of most of the literary and political characters of his day; with a variety of papers on subjects of history and antiquity; and from these volumes it is proposed to select such parts as appear the most interesting and authentic; and it is confidently hoped that they will form a work of great literary interest and curiosity.

A new work is nearly finished at press, entitled *Vulgar Errors, Ancient and Modern*, attributed as imports to the proper names of the globe, clearly ascertained; with approximations to their rational descents, investigating the origin and use of letters, Moses's hitherto misunderstood account of Eden, biblical long lost names, unknown names of heathen gods, of nations, provinces, towns, &c. with a critical disquisition on every station of Richard of Cirencester and Antoninus in Britain.

Speedily will be published a secret history of the marriage of the princess Charlotte with prince Leopold, and of the breaking off the treaty with the hereditary prince of Orange; with an outline of the policy of the court of Russia, and some anecdotes of the duchess of Oldenburgh.

Mr. Wright, of Liverpool, whose attachment to the principles of liberty are well known, and deservedly respected, announces a new weekly publication, to be entitled "the Liverpool Freeman," with this excellent motto, from Mr. Fox:—"If to inform the people of England of their actual situation is to inflame them, the

fault is in those who have brought them into that situation, and not in those who only tell them the truth " It will partake of the character of a magazine: political intelligence and discussion will be the primary object; but, by compressing the events, and reserving the space occupied with advertisements, a large portion of the paper will be appropriated to a greater variety of subjects, and to communications of merit. It will be printed a sheet of demy, in octavo pages.

The *Paradise of Coquettes*, attributed in this country to Mr. Leigh Hunt, was written by Thomas Brown, M. D. professor of moral philosophy in the university of Edinburgh, who is also the author of two other late poems—the *War Fiend* and the *Wanderer of Norway*.

We are glad to find that Joseph Lancaster, undaunted by personal losses or opposition, still perseveres in his useful career. He lately stated, at a public dinner of the friends of his system, in London, that, in the space of little more than twenty months, he had travelled about 45,000 miles, lectured to above 113,000 persons, in near 450 lectures, and expended above one thousand pounds of the proceeds of these lectures in the expenses attendant on the promulgation of this great cause. He has above 600 schools on his lists, and he particularly noticed one at Cincinnati, on the Ohio, 700 miles from New York, for 900 children. Two pupils, conversant in his system, have gone down the Mississippi, to extend his system there.

ERRATUM.

Page 319, line 8 from the bottom, for *east* read *coast*.